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THE EFFECTS OF VERBAL NON-IMMEDIACY AND COGNITIVE INCOMPATIBILITY ON THE RECIPROCITY OF SELF-DISCLOSURE

by

© MARVIN CARSON ROTH

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Effects of Verbal Non-Immediacy and Cognitive Incompatibility on the Reciprocity of Self-Disclosure," submitted by Marvin Carson Roth, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

Verbal non-immediacy stands as a measure of negative affect regarding one's experience. The negative affect is reflected by an individual's choice of certain words rather than other words of similar meaning which convey the same message. Previous theory and research have indicated that disclosures which contain fewer non-immediate words would be more conducive to client improvement than would more non-immediate disclosures.

It was hypothesized that an effective way to induce a higher level of immediacy in the disclosures of another would be for the first individual to engage in immediate disclosures. Furthermore, past research has indicated that similarity of attitudes and cognitive structure leads to increased interpersonal attraction and understanding. If immediacy relates to positive affect, it was assumed that pairing individuals according to similar attitudes and cognitive structures (i.e., integrative complexity) would also induce more immediate self-disclosure.

Methodologically, this study was an experimental analogue of psychotherapy in the sense that certain dyadic communication variables may be common across a variety of interpersonal situations, including psychotherapy.

Forty-eight students were selected from undergraduate psychology courses at The University of Alberta. Twenty-four male and 24 female subjects (Ss) were selected such that 12 of each sex were classified, on the basis of the Individual Topical Inventory, according to the lowest and highest level of integrative complexity (System I and System IV, respectively). Ss were randomly assigned to experimental conditions in

which a confederate (C) was either Immediate or Non-immediate, and System I or System IV in his communications to S. Dependent variables included change in immediacy of S's disclosures to C, as well as S's post-experimental ratings of C, self, and the interaction. Since the immediacy change variable was assessed on four separate topics, the design, in summary, was a factorial design with 2 levels of sex, 2 levels of S cognitive complexity, 2 levels of C complexity, 2 levels of C immediacy, and four topics (repeated measures). The hypothesis that immediate disclosures (versus non-immediate) of one person would be reciprocated by greater immediacy on the part of another, particularly when individuals are compatible (similar in integrative complexity) was not supported. The results indicated that while immediacy may be reciprocated by immediacy for System IV Cs' communications, immediate disclosures by System I Cs (who were perceived as more closed, inflexible, intolerant, and unfriendly) induced significantly more non-immediacy than when such attitudes were disclosed in a non-immediate manner. Also, compatibility led to increased immediacy only with female Ss.

The implications were that immediacy may only conditionally evoke immediacy on the part of another. For instance, immediacy in conjunction with tolerance for and acceptance of another may cause reciprocated immediacy, while immediacy in intolerant, less accepting disclosures may elicit non-immediacy. The results suggested that only when therapist genuineness also conveys respect, will a client disclose himself in a therapeutically beneficial manner. Therapist genuineness about his disrespect or disapproval may actually hinder therapeutic progress. More research in a clinical setting would be necessary to verify the present implications for psychotherapy.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

I. THESIS PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

The literature on client process variables basically hypothesizes that if a client in psychotherapy engages in a certain process, constructive change, as defined by a variety of improvement measures, will occur. On the basis of abstractions from interview recordings, Rogers (1959, 1961) articulated this process by the development of a Process Scale which represents a continuum of client improvement. For each of the process stages, the behaviors and experiences of the client are described. The first stages are characterized by reluctance to communicate self or to own one's feelings. Focus tends to be on external circumstances which are seen as being beyond the client's responsibility. Experiences and feelings which are disclosed are primarily of the past and are usually negative and not readily acceptable to the individual. On the other end of the process scale, in the final stage of improvement (Patterson, 1966):

> The client experiences new feelings with immediacy and richness, and uses them for referents for knowing who he is, what he wants, and what his attitudes are. Changing feelings are accepted and owned; there is trust in the total organismic process . . . there is experiencing of real and effective choice . . . [and] openness to experience (p. 419).

While the Process Scale encountered limitations in applicability across various patient types and therapeutic orientations (Tomlinson, 1962; Veen, 1967), it has generated much research evidence that particularly neurotic clients, with client-centered therapists, improved in accordance with the scale, or revisions of it (Rogers, 1967; Tomlinson &

Hart, 1962).

An extensive body of research (Rogers, 1967; Aspy, 1966; Carkhuff, 1967; Carkhuff & Truax, 1966; Truax & Carkhuff, 1964, 1966) has suggested that interactions between persons may have what Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) refer to as "facilitative," "neutral," or "retarding" effects. The claim is that individuals improve when interacting with persons functioning at a high level on such dimensions as empathic understanding, positive regard, genuineness, and concreteness or specificity of expression. (While this generalization has also encountered limitations, facilitative conditions have been shown to coincide with various measures of therapeutic gain under an array of circumstances.)

While the Process Scale describes the client's mode of experiencing and expressing, the core dimension "genuineness" is one which describes the experiencing and expressing of the therapist. The therapist who is functioning on the highest level of this dimension is depicted as being freely and deeply himself, spontaneous in his interaction, and open to all types of experiences. Also, the therapist relies on his own experiences in the relationship as the best guideline, with the focus upon his experience of himself in the moment (Carkhuff, 1969).

A comparison of the therapist who is functioning at high levels of genuineness and the client in the final stages of improvement reveals much similarity. Thus, as Carkhuff (1969) suggested, it appears that the therapist is a key ingredient insofar as he offers a model of a person who is living effectively. Possibly the extent to

which a client reaches the latter stages of improvement is related to the degree that the therapist conveys the behavior and disposition the client is to acquire. Therefore, as the therapist manifests himself as an individual who openly accepts and trusts his own feelings, conditions are established for the client to do likewise. Truax (1971) suggested that:

> [a] reciprocity affect is a basic phenomenon of human, and even animal existence; if we offer human warmth we elicit warmth from another in return. If we ourselves are open, self-congruent, transparent, spontaneously real, or in a word, genuine, then we elicit these same qualities in others (p. 352).

In brief, the assumption of the present study was that, for some clients, improvement, in accordance with Rogers' Process Scale, would entail the client's acquisition of a different mode of self-experiencing and self-expression. One circumstance which may foster such an acquisition may be for the therapist to be operating in accordance with this mode. The therapist's manifestation of self, or self-disclosure, depending on the degree to which it represents the therapeutically desired mode, may not only foster an atmosphere which facilitates client improvement, but also provide the client with a model for self-experiencing and expressing. Furthermore, the client's tendency to acquire the therapist's mode of experiencing and expressing may be maximized when positive affect is generated in the context of client-therapist compatibility.

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the extent to which the mode of self-experiencing and expressing (self-disclosing) of one individual will be acquired by another, i.e., to investigate how readily disclosures conveying positive affect and evaluation

regarding one's experience are reciprocated by similar disclosures. Also, some consideration was given to the context in which such a reciprocity effect could be maximized.

II. RESEARCH STRATEGY

In a recent review of research in psychotherapy, Bergin (1972) attributed research progress to the breaking down of the entire therapeutic enterprise into isolated variables. He suggested that the appropriate question is "what specific therapeutic interventions produce specific changes in specific clients under specific conditions (p. 44)."

The "breaking down" has taken the form of studying counsellors, clients, the relationship, and techniques as variables relating to outcome. A myriad of isolated variables have been shown to somehow have an effect on certain outcome measures; the first part of Bergin's suggestion has been faithfully pursued, particularly by numerous correlational studies. However, specification regarding the situational limitations on the relationship of such variables to outcome remains comparatively meagre. For example, while intimacy of self-disclosure may be shown to be positively related to e.g., reciprocated intimacy, special conditions may exist under which intimacy does not generate intimacy. Therefore, while "breaking down" the therapeutic process may contribute to discovering the effects of isolated variables, it may still be necessary to discover how such variables operate in conjunction with other variables in order to limit the extent to which research findings lead to premature and erroneous generalizations.

For instance, while specifying how client variables and how therapist variables are related to outcome may have implications for the efficacy of counselling, Pardes, Winston and Papernik (1971) suggested a growing need for a more explicit delineation of the types of patients and a knowledge of which patient-therapist matches would be most likely to produce positive results. It was further suggested that such a delineation would be an asset not only in terms of time economy, but also in terms of contributing to understanding and improving therapeutic effectiveness.

In addition to the investigation of interactions of various variables, another essential for productive research is experimental control. However, in a situation as complex as a therapeutic interview, direct observation as well as isolation and control of specific variables may be extremely complicated or improbable. Thus, an alternative research strategy is an experimental analogue of psychotherapy. One type of analogue, as described by Heller (1971), involves:

> investigation of aspects of dyadic communication, on the assumption that there are structural and role components of social influence situations that are common to all forms of influence, including psychotherapy (p. 149).

The present use of the experimental analogue, designed in accordance with the research strategy described above, was to investigate how one individual's self-disclosure affects the self-disclosure of another. The results may have implications for therapist's effective use of self-disclosure. However, further investigation in a clinical setting would be desirable in order to minimize erroneous or inappropriate generalizations.

CHAPTER II

THEORY AND RELATED RESEARCH

I. CLIENT PROCESS VARIABLES

The Context of the Client Improvement Process

While Rogers' (1959, 1961) formulation of the client improvement process lacks generality for all types of client improvement, the range of applicability tends to be toward persons with difficulties related to self-concept (Rogers, 1961; Tomlinson & Hart, 1962). No attempt will be made to estimate the percentage of clients such a designation would encompass, except to specify that the population to which the scale tended to be more relevant was what may be loosely termed as neurotic rather than psychotic clients (Kiesler, Mathieu, & Klein, 1967). For this particular range of client difficulties, improvement tends to be positively related to the individual's increased ability to experience and express himself differently in the presence of another individual. As the therapeutic relationship develops, according to Rogers' "process equation," and as the client is

> becoming less fearful of his experiencing, he comes closer to it. Realizing that he is not yet entirely in his experiences, he wishes he were. Taking increased satisfaction that he can begin to really communicate himself to his therapist, he begins to lose consciousness of self. Then, finding satisfaction in expressing the complexity of his feeling at the moment, he loosens up, increasingly dares to live openly in relationship to the therapist (Dublin, 1970, p. 53).

Accordingly, learning to communicate himself in the therapeutic setting is viewed as integral part of the client's acceptance of and satisfaction with his experiences.

The Role of Self-Disclosure in the Change Process

According to the "process equation," central to improvement is the notion that the client learns to share himself openly and comfortably with the therapist. Jourard (1970) has referred to such open sharing as "self-disclosure." He has defined disclosure as "to unveil, to make manifest, or to show. Self-disclosure is to make yourself manifest, or to show yourself so that others can perceive you (p. 44)." He has further proposed that people become clients because they have not disclosed themselves in some optimal degree to the people in their lives. He (1964) states that:

> Self-disclosure, or should I say "real" -self-disclosure, is both a symptom of personality health and at the same time a means of ultimately achieving healthy personality. . . . [Thus] A person who displays many of the characteristics that betoken healthy personality will also display the ability to make himself fully known to at least one other person (p. 25).

Jourard has found empirical evidence to suggest a positive relationship between self-disclosure and self-concept (1971), adjustment (1971), liking (1959), and academic success (1961). In brief, both Jourard's theory and research suggest that the more improved or adjusted a client is, the greater will be his tendency and ability to share himself openly and intimately with others.

Some recent findings, however, have called into question whether self-disclosure is positively related to personal adjustment or even to an improvement process. A study by Hamilton (1972) indicated a positive relationship between intimate self-disclosure of college students and neuroticism. Truax and Wittmer (1971) found least well-adjusted college students, as assessed by the MMPI, to show the greatest amount of self-disclosure to "friend," whereas the more well-adjusted

showed less. Pederson and Breglio (1968) found no significant relationship between personality and self-disclosure for females, but did find that emotionally unstable males disclosed more about their personality, health, and physical appearance than did emotionally healthy males. Also, higher disclosing encounter group trainers were regarded by group members as less mentally healthy than low disclosing trainers (Wiegel, Dinges, Dyer & Straumfjord, 1972). However, a study of self-disclosure of police officers by Parker and Roth (1973) revealed no relationship between level of self-disclosure, as measured by Jourard's Sixty Item Self-Disclosure Questionnaire, and personal adjustment (as indicated by the California Personality Inventory).

The inconsistency of the above data with Jourard's research and theoretical formulations would suggest that increased ability to be openly and intimately oneself is not necessarily indicative of an improved state. However, an examination of the manner in which self-disclosure has been measured in experimental settings may help to account for some of the confusion.

A basic difficulty, as suggested by Block and Goodstein (1971), has been a less than complete operational definition of self-disclosure, which leaves the measurement process, statistical results, and conclusions open to a variety of interpretations. For example, while theoretically, the self-disclosure which Jourard relates to adjustment has been characterized as "real" -self rather than merely self-disclosure, an examination of Jourard's questionnaires reveals that his scales were not designed to make such a discrimination. Thus, just what high scores on such questionnaires indicate remains open to speculation.

One difficulty regarding the interpretation of Jourard's scales relates to his use of the self-report questionnaire as an indication of an individual's openness. Experimental findings of Hurley and Hurley (1969) did not support the use of Jourard's Sixty Item Self-Disclosure Questionnaire as a satisfactory measure of "disclosingness." In fact, the results indicated an inverse relationship between the questionnaire measurements of past disclosures to significant others and group members' ratings of the individual's current amount of disclosure. A further difficulty related to inferring openness from the self-report questionnaire involves the discrepancy between what an individual indicates he discloses and what he actually discloses. Lind (1970), through extensive interviewing, found a low validity coefficient (.43) for claimed self-disclosure when compared to actual disclosure. Also, the relevance of number of topics about which an individual indicates he would disclose remains unclear without reference to data regarding just what was discussed and the nature of the discussion (Block & Goodstein, 1971). Furthermore, while Jourard suggested that both insufficient and excessive self-disclosure relate to maladjustment (1964), findings by West (1968) did not confirm a curvilinear relationship between total self-disclosure of adolescents and anxiety. Rather, a small positive linear relationship occurred.

A final consideration of the ambiguity in the self-disclosure research relates to limitations regarding the measurement of self-disclosure in regard to high versus low intimacy topics. Examination of Jourard's self-disclosure questionnaires reveals a rather restricted use of the term "intimacy." For example, of the 19 high intimacy

topics in the Forty-Item Questionnaire, 17 of the items have relevance primarily to sexual matters, such as feelings about one's own masturbation, or techniques of sex play with which one is familiar. The safest conclusion may be that high scores on such scales relate to willingness to openly discuss sexual matters.

Thus, the assessment of the merits of self-disclosure remains difficult unless what is meant by self-disclosure is stipulated, and what is actually measured by the instrument is carefully considered.

The Relationship of Therapist Disclosure to Client Improvement

While Jourard contends that self-disclosure is both an indication of and a means for personal adjustment, it appears that the important element is not the amount or intimacy of client self-disclosure, but the nature of the self-disclosure. According to Rogers' process equation, the purpose of therapy would be to encourage disclosures of the "real" person, rather than disclosures that are merely intimate and perhaps defensive and distorted. Thus, the concept of "real" becomes focal. In a further articulation of "real," Rogers (1970) stated that being real is learning that:

> there is basically nothing to be afraid of when I present myself as I am, when I come forth non-defensively, without armor, just me. When I can accept the fact that I . . . often have feelings which are not justified by the circumstances (p. 13).

Verbal Non-Immediacy as a Measure of the Client Improvement Process

While much has been written advocating acceptance of one's experience, including negative thoughts and feelings, and various psychometric tests and scales have been designed to assess process and outcome in accordance with such concepts as self-acceptance (Butler,

1966; Endler, 1967), little attention has been focused on how covert negative attitudes about one's experiences are manifested. Particularly, relatively little emphasis has been placed on how the choice of certain words may indicate, as well as perpetuate, negative affect for and lack of acceptance of one's experience. Extensive research by Wiener and Mehrabian (1968) has identified the variable "verbal non-immediacy" which functions as a measure of a communicator's negative affect or evaluation in regard to his experience (Mehrabian, 1964; Wiener & Mehrabian, 1966). Non-immediacy has been described by Wiener and Mehrabian (1968) as:

> any indication of separation, non-identity, attenuation of directness, or change in intensity of interaction among the communicator, the addressee, the object of communication, or the communication. . . . These variations in experience [are assumed] to be associated with positive versus negative affect, evaluation or preferential relationships of the communicator to the object of his communication, his addressee, or his communication (p. 32).

Studies by Isaac (1963) and Kempler and Wiener (1964) showed that given some assessments of subjects' attitudes toward a particular area of experience, subjects' usage of non-immediacy categories was significantly greater when communicating about negatively (versus positively) evaluated experiences. Kaplan (1953) found that subjects who were instructed to say favorable things about something which was not preferred by them showed a shift toward more non-immediate communication. Wiener and Mehrabian (1966) have found that communications which are about long-standing, as well as experimentally induced negative affect experiences, contain significantly more non-immediacy than do communications about positive affect experiences. In essence, "what appears to be the same thing (i.e., the same content) said with

different words can be the basis for inferring quite different feelings and attitudes on the part of the speaker (Wiener & Mehrabian, 1968, p. 2)."

Consider, for example, the following disclosure: "I get angry when my parents treat me like a child." Such a self-disclosure might stand as a genuine, non-defensive statement, reflecting an accepting attitude of one's experience, or according to Rogers (1967), not discriminating against any self-experience as being less worthy of positive regard than any other.

In other words, while a person may have a negative emotional or cognitive experience, a congruent, self-accepting individual retains positive regard, or experiences little negative affect regarding the negative experience. For instance, the underlying message would be "I feel all right about my anger."

However, an alternative self-disclosure, while carrying the same content message, but said in different (more non-immediate) words, may indicate discomfort and difficulty in accepting one's organismic experience. For example, the disclosure, "it kind of makes you (me) sort of (very) angry when some people (my parents) can't treat you (me) as an adult," may sound like an intimate, personal self-disclosure. However, the word "you" used instead of "me" may indicate the individual's difficulty in accepting himself as a particular individual guilty of being angry at his parents. By putting one's self into a category, the message may read, "I am not as blameworthy if others would, by human nature, tend to respond the same way." (In contrast, positive affect statements, such as "I like my parents" are seldom

cloaked in a non-immediacy category unless the individual feels uncomfortable about expressing positive feelings.) Similarly, the use of "kind of" and "sort of" may operate to cushion, deny, or distort the power and effect of the uncherished anger. "Makes you" and "can't" deny self and other responsibility, to hold no one guilty. The need to deny responsibility suggests that the state of affairs could be considered as someone's fault. Alternatively, positive experiences encourage words which reflect choice (e.g., "will," "want"), in order to somehow credit the agent, perhaps oneself or an admired other, for the good fortune. Substituting "some people" when the context indicates "my parents" may indicate a reluctance to associate the "bad" feelings with e.g., persons about whom one "should" have good feelings. (For further elaboration of the non-immediacy categories, see Appendix A.)

The extent to which disclosures are non-immediate may be indicative of the degree of personal or interpersonal difficulty the individual is experiencing. Wallen (1967) suggested that the most frequent interpersonal difficulty is not due to the fact that one has feelings, but rather one's attitude towards one's feelings. He further explains that because of our negative attitude towards emotions, because of our fear of and discomfort with our feelings, we spend much effort trying, in one way or another, to deny or ignore them. Such denial, modification or distortion of one's experience has also been extensively elaborated on by Freud (1938), May (1958), Janov (1970), and Perls (1969). However, while Wiener and Mehrabian have associated verbal non-immediacy with reluctance to accept one's present experience, no

attempt was made to establish whether individuals who used more non-immediacy when talking about themselves were less self-accepting, or less personally and socially adjusted. A recent study by Robertson and Roth (1973) was addressed to this issue. For this investigation, 75 grade nine students were randomly selected and the California Test of Personality (CTP) was administered to them. The CTP (Intermediate level) was designed to measure life adjustment, defined as a balance between personal and social adjustment. Personal adjustment was assumed to be based on feelings of personal security, and items included in this grouping were designed to measure self-reliance, sense of personal worth, sense of personal freedom, feeling of belonging, withdrawing tendencies and nervous symptoms. Social adjustment was assumed to be based upon feelings of social security. The 19 Ss scoring highest and the 19 Ss scoring lowest on the test participated in an individual interview in which they talked on topics about themselves and others. Verbalizations were rated on non-immediacy. The hypothesis that poorly adjusted individuals are more non-immediate than more well-adjusted people when talking about themselves was supported ($p < .05$, $df = 36$).

In summary, the use of the Wiener and Mehrabian scales for evaluating self-disclosure according to adjustment receives support from both the theoretical rationale and experimental findings. While other scales may also provide a means for evaluating self-disclosure, verbal non-immediacy may function as a more subtle measure of "real" - self-disclosure. Also, according to the preceding rationale and evidence, the disclosures that would be conducive to positive client

change, in accordance with Rogers' process formulations, would be disclosures which are most immediate.

II. THE RECIPROCITY EFFECT IN THE CLIENT IMPROVEMENT PROCESS

Therapist Disclosure as a Method of Inducing Client Disclosure

Extensive research and speculation suggest that reflective, empathic statements may facilitate self-exploration on the part of another. However, little attention has been given to how one individual's manner of self-disclosure may encourage reciprocal disclosures which are not only as intimate and long in duration as the first individual's disclosures (Jourard & Jaffe, 1972), but are also similar to the first person's disclosure in terms of revealing one's "real" -self. Carkhuff (1969) suggested that a helper who discloses himself will enable the helpee to disclose himself as well, and that if the helper is able to verbalize what is occurring within himself in the immediate situation, such a disclosure will encourage the helpee to similarly relate his experiences. Thus, therapist disclosure may not only be an avenue for promoting therapeutic conditions such as trust (Johnson & Noonan, 1972), genuineness or congruence (Truax, 1971), and liking (Jourard, 1959), but also provide what Jourard (1964) has termed "a role-model of growth-yielding interpersonal behavior" with which the client can identify.

Empirical evidence is supportive of the effectiveness of self-disclosure in encouraging self-disclosure. Powell (1968) showed that an experimenter's disclosure in response to a subject's disclosure of personal information during an interview functioned as a more effective

reinforcer of the subject's disclosures than did reflection and supportive responses from the experimenter. Drag (1968) found that when the experimenter told the subjects something about herself before the interview, the subjects would reveal much more than when she revealed nothing about herself prior to the interview. Goodman's (1962) results indicated that clients who work with a self-disclosing therapist manifest higher levels of self-experiencing during therapy than clients who work with a non-disclosing therapist. Thus, an effective method for inducing client self-disclosure which leads to client improvement may be for the therapist to engage in self-disclosure as well.

However, as reported earlier, client self-disclosures which merely involve intimate, lengthy verbalizations may not necessarily lead to the client's improvement. Also, the quality of the therapist's disclosures may crucially effect the quality of the client's disclosures. Some support has been offered for considering verbal non-immediacy as a subtle measure of the client process which relates to improvement. Also, Kuiken and Roth (1973) and Dublin (1970) had found some support that immediate disclosures beget immediate disclosures; however, evidence of such remains meagre.

In brief, immediate self-disclosures may function to convey facilitative conditions as well as provide a model for more immediate self-disclosure on the part of another. In the light of the theoretical rationale and research findings, which suggest that higher levels of immediacy are related to greater self-acceptance as well as to personal and social adjustment, it would appear that disclosures that

induce greater levels of immediacy would be desireable.

III. LIMITATIONS OF THE RECIPROCITY EFFECT

Client-Therapist Incompatibility as a Limiting Factor

While therapist's immediate self-disclosures may provide a model for more immediate disclosures, the client's tendency to reciprocate immediacy may be countered by mutual discomfort arising in the context of incompatible client-therapist pairings (Dublin, 1970). In other words, while one individual may unreluctantly disclose his real, genuine self, and display positive affect regarding his own experiencing, such self-presentation may produce discomfort on the part of another. In the context of such negative affect, his own disclosures may tend to be non-immediate.

Carkhuff has acknowledged limitations of a high functioning individual in facilitating improvement of another. In the event that one individual's level of functioning is highly divergent from that of another, Carkhuff (1969) affirms that the high-functioning individual, to help the lower-functioning one, must concentrate upon minimal levels of facilitative conditions in a minimally genuine context. Thus, paradoxically, in such instances, the therapist would be most facilitative when he is functioning at the minimal levels of the facilitative conditions.

The implication is that a high-functioning individual would assist the low-functioning individual towards greater improvement if he minimized the extent to which he revealed his "real" -self. Perhaps the therapist's behavior at a lower facilitative level may be more

readily modelled than would higher level behaviors. However, characteristics of clients in the initial stages of the improvement process, compared with high-functioning therapists, reveal certain attitudinal dissimilarities. These dissimilarities may not always be related to the client's degree of personal distress. For example, not all individuals who are closed to new experiences, and who attribute their actions to external circumstances rather than choice, are highly distressed. Therefore, a high-functioning therapist who withholds revealing himself may be, in part, reducing the visibility of certain attitudinal dissimilarities which occur regarding some of his low-functioning clients. These dissimilarities, if highly visible, could spotlight the therapist as indirectly disagreeing with, and being non-sympathetic with the client's experiences, thus rendering the client's self-acceptance and "real" -self disclosures more difficult. Furthermore, the client's positive affect regarding the therapist or the relationship may be reduced in proportion to his perception of such differences.

Perhaps if clients and therapists were initially similar on certain dimensions, the need for the therapist's reduction of the visibility of differences would be unnecessary. As such, the therapist would have no cause to withhold his "real" -self-expression, since his manifested similarity would encourage more "real" -self-expression on the part of the client.

In brief, if client-therapist compatibility is considered as pairing conducive for and related to positive outcome, client-therapist similarity on certain dimensions may contribute to such compatibility.

Extensive research in attraction of marriage partners (Martinson, 1970), interpersonal attraction (Mehrabian & Shelden, 1971) and client-therapist compatibility (Rosenthal, 1955; Cook, 1966; Wilkowitz, Cohen & Ortemeyer, 1967) has generally supported that similarity on such dimensions as attitudes, values, and interests is conducive to interpersonal attraction, positive evaluation and affect, feelings of compatibility, and, in the case of therapy, positive outcome. While dissimilarity on certain dimensions such as personal adjustment, self-concept, and needs has also been considered a factor of compatibility in the form of one individual's personality complimenting that of another, (using such instruments as the MMPI, Q-Sorts, and the FIRO-B), results in this area tend to be inconsistent and inconclusive (Axelrod, 1952; Bare, 1967; Swenson, 1967).

Evidence that attitudinal similarity as revealed through self-disclosure may be considered a dimension of compatibility was suggested in a study by Murphey and Strong (1972). Sixty-two college males were asked to disclose regarding how college had altered their friendships, values, and plans. The interviewer also disclosed personal experiences and feelings. Results supported that the degree to which the interviewer disclosed similar experiences to the interviewee related positively to the student's feelings of warmth, friendliness, and being understood, as well as to the student's perceptions of the interviewer's desire to become known.

While the therapist may move toward minimal genuineness in self-revelation to avoid exposing attitude, value, or interest dissimilarities, such movement may only in part compensate for actual differences.

Moses (1969) gathered data on a number of attitudinal, value, and interest dimensions, as measured by the Whitehorn-Betz A-B Scale, the Value Profile, the Work Values Inventory, and nine outcome measures. In addition to the client and therapist self-report measures, clients were asked to complete the same measures as they imagined their therapists would. In keeping with the trend of previous research, similarity was closely related to positive outcome. Similarly, studies by Salopski (1960), Overall and Aronson (1963), and Feitel (1968), have suggested that client's positive evaluation of the relationship, perception of similarity, expectancy, and feeling of being understood related more positively to outcome than did therapist's ratings or objective measures of similarity and outcome. Thus, some justification may be offered for therapists to reduce the visibility of dissimilarity by reducing levels of functioning. However, an additional finding by Moses (1969) was that accuracy of perceived similarity related more closely to positive outcome than did either similarity or perceived similarity. This might imply that, while reducing the appearance of dissimilarity could enhance positive outcome, client-therapist pairings in which such dissimilarities were not operant initially may be most expedient for client improvement.

In brief, compatibility has been considered as the extent to which client-therapist pairings optimize positive outcome. Similarity, particularly in the attitudinal, value, and interest areas, tends to relate positively to outcome as well as to conditions conducive to client improvement. Dissimilarity on certain dynamic or need dimensions could be conducive to compatibility through rendering personalities which are complimentary, however, evidence for such remains

inconclusive.

Cognitive Similarity as a Compatibility Dimension

While attitudinal similarity has been shown to be positively related to favorable outcome, another aspect of compatibility, which has been suggested in the above studies, relates to the client's feelings of being understood. For example, one male patient with a reported I.Q. of 83 is quoted (Cartwright, 1968) as saying:

> "My doctor was a nice enough guy but I never knew what the hell he was talking about. He didn't make no sense at all. Only time I felt better was when me and the boys would knock around our problems while playing pool (p. 397)."

Keith-Spiegel and Spiegel (1967) found that the higher the education level of the patient, the more psychiatrists and psychologists were viewed as most helpful, and the lower the educational level, the more help was seen as having been given by aides and fellow patients.

While it is difficult to isolate the communication difficulty which accounts for client feelings of not being understood, Newcomb (1958) suggested that successful communication between two individuals depends upon similarity in the cognitive dimensions used by each other. Also, some evidence has indicated that incompatibility of cognitive structures may account for the failure of patients and therapists to agree about outcome and the nature of the therapy relationship (Carr & Whittenbaugh, 1969; Rogers, 1967).

Carr (1970) found evidence for a trend towards cognitive convergence between counsellor and client, perhaps in an effort to establish a common level for communication. From his study, he concluded

that, following establishment of compatibility, the therapist's differentiation levels increase, presumably reflecting his efforts to further articulate the patient's relative conceptual dimensions. He concluded that a counsellor's ability to function at a higher level does not necessarily imply a loss of mutuality or a reduction in empathic understanding provided mobility is possible which would enable the counsellor to "shift down" to the patient's level of complexity. He states that while the therapist may have succeeded in differentiating a particular dimension to a far greater degree than his patient, he may still assume the patient's less differentiated level for purposes of re-establishing communication.

Integrative Complexity as a Measure of Different Cognitive Styles

The general trend of the research findings indicates that conditions under which client-therapist compatibility appears optimal includes not only similarity on attitudinal dimensions, but also similarity of cognitive structures. In the past, studies examining the role of cognitive similarity on client-therapist compatibility has been limited to the dimensional complexity approach (Bieri, 1955, 1961, 1966). This approach focuses on ability to construe behaviors of others in a multi-dimensional way, with higher complexity involving the use of a larger number of constructs.

Harvey, Hunt and Shroder (1961) have developed an approach to cognitive complexity that is not limited to those aspects of cognitive functioning that have to do with differentiation, but is also concerned with the integration of what has been differentiated. Integrative complexity, therefore, includes a description of cognitive complexity

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in terms of systems of attitudes that occur at various levels of cognitive functioning. The acquisition of such systems is seen as a progressive development from a state of conceptual undifferentiation to differentiation and integration, from concreteness to increased abstractness. Each conceptual system tends to pass through certain plateaus or stages of varying time and breadth. In the initial stages, the individual evolves concepts that he applies categorically and absolutely. He then passes through a state of negativism and self-assertion. Later the individual functions with a greater focus on interpersonal relationships, with a major concern regarding acceptance and rejection. Finally, he reaches a state of higher independence and relativism marked by greater self-sufficiency and adequacy in coping with complexity and change. These four stages have been defined as a developmental continuum with each stage treated as a different conceptual system with salient characteristics. At the lowest level of complexity (Tuckman, 1966):

> the rules or schemata for categorizing stimuli are highly fixed and simple. Ambiguity is not tolerated and simple schemata, norms, or authorities help the individual to structure his environment in a complete and unyielding way. System I individuals are characterized by categorical, black-white thinking, minimization of conflict and avoidance ambiguity, self-definition in terms of external anchors, preservation of standards and minimization of fixed approaches or stereotypes (p. 370).

At the highest level of integrative complexity:

> a diverse world filled with many alternatives is perceived. The System IV individual uses highly complex and flexible schemata for reading his environment and those in it. Inter-personally, this individual is highly autonomous and reacts to people as a source of information. The System IV person generates a large variety of alternative interpretations of environmental events and can thus react to the subleties of his environment with appropriate and novel responses (p. 370).

Since compatibility tends to apply to attitude similarly as well as cognitive structure, the assumption of the present study was that individuals assessed as cognitively similar according to the integrative complexity approach would be highly compatible.

Therefore, the expected tendency would be that individual's "real" -self, immediate disclosures, would be more readily emitted in cognitively similar pairings. Also, since the level of immediacy of an individual's disclosure would be, according to earlier speculation, less threatening to the other if the individuals were compatibly paired, one person's increased immediacy level of disclosure could readily induce the other towards a higher level of immediacy.

In brief, positive affect arising in compatible pairings could suggest that to maximize the level of immediacy of reciprocated disclosures, matching individuals according to similar systems of integrative complexity would be preferable.

CHAPTER III

DEFINITIONS AND HYPOTHESES

I. DEFINITIONS

The following definitions have been adopted for use in this study.

Client improvement refers to change in client mode of experiencing and expression according to the Process Scale (Rogers, 1961).

Self-disclosure is any verbal manifestation of one's self.

"Real" -self-disclosure is self-disclosure characterized by positive affect and acceptance of one's experiences, thus, non-immediacy is minimal.

Verbal non-immediacy is a measure of negative affect or evaluation of a communicator regarding his present experience, which may be in relation to the object of his communication, the addressee, or the communication proper.

Reciprocity effect is the tendency for the manner of expression of one individual to influence another individual toward similar expression.

Cognitive compatibility refers to the pairing of individuals of similar systems (I and I, and IV and IV) of integrative complexity.

Integrative complexity, as defined by Tuckman (1966), is "a measure of the extent to which the individual perceives his world and those in it in a highly differentiated and integrated manner (p. 381)."

II. HYPOTHESES

While a therapist's ability to remain immediate in spite of dissimilarity may encourage an increase in client immediacy, the most productive conditions for optimal client self-disclosure, it is presumed, would occur in response to immediate therapist disclosures which are cognitively similar to those of the client. The hypotheses were:

Hypothesis I

> Immediate disclosures (versus Non-immediate) on the part of one individual will induce the reciprocation of more immediacy on the part of another.

Hypothesis II

> Immediacy will be most readily reciprocated in cognitively compatible (versus incompatible) pairings.

Hypothesis III

> Immediacy will be most readily emitted in cognitively compatible (versus incompatible) pairings (regardless of the immediacy level of the model).

Hypothesis IV

> Positive affect, (as assessed by a post-experimental questionnaire, Appendix F), will be greater in response to Immediate (versus Non-immediate) disclosures.

Hypothesis V

> More positive affect (as indicated by the questionnaire) will occur in compatible than in incompatible pairings.

If immediate disclosures on the part of one individual encourage more immediate disclosures on the part of another, such a trend may have implications for the use of therapist self-disclosure to induce

the client to disclose in a manner conducive for improvement. Also, if immediacy is not only greater in compatible pairings, but also more readily reciprocated, then it may be therapeutically expedient to match clients with cognitively compatible therapists.

CHAPTER IV

METHOD

I. DESIGN

A total of 24 male and 24 female subjects (Ss) were selected such that half of each were classified as System I and half as System IV on the basis of the Individual Topical Inventory (ITI). Ss were randomly assigned to experimental conditions in which a confederate (C) was either Immediate or Non-immediate, and System I or System IV in his communications to S. Dependent variables included: change in immediacy of S's disclosures to C, liking for C, S's comfort and self-satisfaction and assumed similarity. Since the immediacy change variable was assessed on four separate topics, the design, in summary, was a factorial design with 2 levels of sex, 2 levels of S cognitive complexity, 2 levels of C complexity, 2 levels of C immediacy, and four topics (repeated measures).

II. SUBJECTS

The 48 Ss were selected from undergraduate psychology courses at The University of Alberta, on the basis of classification on the ITI. This test was designed by Tuckman (1966) for the purpose of differentiating individuals according to level of cognitive functioning (see Appendix B). The ITI was intended to be an objectively scored replacement for the Paragraph Completion Test (Shroeder & Streufert, 1962) which is a projective instrument for the classifying of individuals according to the level of integrative complexity of their personality

structure. When the Tuckman scoring procedure for the ITI is used, the test allows the experimenter to classify a subject into one of four conceptual systems on the basis of the number of responses he makes to each system. The systems increase in complexity from System I to System IV. Six stems are used in the ITI (when I am criticized . . . ; when I am in doubt . . . ; this I believe about people . . . ; leaders . . . ; when other people find fault with me . . . ;), and six pairs of alternatives follow each stem. Of the total of 72 alternatives, 18 fall into each of the four conceptual systems. According to this procedure, the S's maximum score for any one system is 18. An adjustment to this scoring procedure was used which permitted a number of originally unclassifiable Ss to be classified (see Appendix B). With this adjustment, Ss are assigned to the highest system in which they score. Tuckman reported a contingency coefficient of .54 between his ITI and Shroeder's Paragraph Completion Test. Gardiner (1968) found a correlation of .57 between the ITI (using an adjusted scoring procedure) and the Paragraph Completion Test. A test-retest reliability of .82 with ITI type and .77 with ITI score was attained by Mulford (1971).

During a previous routine testing period, about 300 students were tested on the Tuckman Individual Topical Inventory. From this group, 74 students received a cognitive complexity classification of System I, the least integratively complex, while 52 students were classified as System IV, the most integratively complex. The Ss were contacted by telephone, and were offered $1.50 for participation in the experiment. Each S was told that the experiment was on impression

formation, and that his involvement would include the discussion of a number of topics with another person. Students from the list were telephoned until 12 System I and 12 System IV females, as well as 12 System I and 12 System IV males agreed to participate. Ss who were familiar with the C were eliminated from the study.

III. COMPLEXITY OF CONFEDERATE MANIPULATION

The Cs (a female for the female condition and a male for the male condition) tape-recorded their communications (for all four conditions) prior to the experiment. The communications were prepared by the author, who participated as experimenter (E), and kept as constant as possible except for the manipulation of the criteria for cognitive complexity. In order to minimize the practice effect in the production of the tapes, the following order was used in preparation: System IV, Non-immediate; System I, Immediate; System IV, Immediate; System I, Non-immediate.

The cognitive complexity manipulation was accomplished by designing the self-disclosure topics to be discussed after the ITI (see Appendix C). Four of the six ITI topics (allowing two for baseline purposes) were chosen for presentation to the Ss in the following order: (1) What I do when in doubt; (2) How I respond when a friend acts differently toward me; (3) My thoughts about people; and (4) How I react when people find fault with me. The Cs' communications consisted of verbatum System I alternatives on the ITI for the System I Condition, and verbatum System IV alternatives for the System IV Condition. For length and realism, to each topic disclosure a constant

number of paraphrasings and examples of the Tuckman statements was added. Caution was employed to keep the paraphrasing and examples consistent with the cognitive system of the condition. For further realism, a constant number of speech disfluencies such as "ah," and "hmm," was added to each communication (see Appendix C).

IV. THE IMMEDIACY OF CONFEDERATE MANIPULATION

The immediacy manipulation was accomplished by varying the immediacy of the examples in each topical disclosure. In the Immediate Conditions, the examples in each topic were designed with as few non-immediacy categories as possible in the disclosure. For instance, the Immediate Conditions involved relating the ITI statements to direct "here and now" examples. Alternatively, in the Non-immediate Condition, the same message was conveyed, except non-immediate words were substituted or added whenever possible. For example, in the System IV, Immediate Condition, the C stated "I find that your experiences add something to my own way of thinking", whereas, in the System IV, Non-immediate Condition the statement was "You find that others' experiences could often make you expand your own thoughts" (see Appendix D).

V. PROCEDURE

The C and S were introduced to each other in a small room adjacent to the laboratory. They were told that the E was interested in impression formation under conditions in which one person knew more about the other than the other knew about him. (This guise provided a rationale for asking the S to talk about the first two topics which the

C did not discuss. These topics provided an initial baseline level of non-immediacy in each S's speech.) The S was instructed to examine a list of topics which they were to discuss (see Appendix D). The list included the four topics on which the C subsequently spoke, as well as the two others for the baseline communications. The latter were: (1) What I think of leaders, and (2) How I respond to criticism. If the S agreed that he would talk on these topics (all did so), he and C were led to separate cubicles. In the S's cubicle was a loudspeaker through which he could hear the C and a microphone through which he could speak to the C. (Actually, the S's microphone was connected to a tape-recorder in the C's cubicle to record the S's communications.) After the S finished speaking on the first two (baseline) topics, the C played the recording of his first topic. The S then followed with his discussion of the same topic. They alternated this way for the remaining three topics (see Appendix E).

The S was then asked to fill out the questionnaire, after which the S was debriefed. Ss who were suspicious of the experimental manipulation were excluded from the study. This exclusion consisted of approximately a half dozen Ss. Suspicion was primarily related to familiarity with experiments in which confederates were used.

VI. DEPENDENT VARIABLES

Measurement of Immediacy

The scoring procedure for the non-immediacy categories required that the disclosures of each S be tape-recorded and transcribed onto typewritten sheets with a constant margin for all Ss. The scoring unit

consisted of the average number of non-immediacy indicators used by the S per complete line. The first and last lines were excluded, since a number of Ss began by restating the topic, and concluded leaving an incompleted typed line.

Since it was of interest to regard immediacy change as a result of the experimental condition, final scores used in the data analysis reflected amount of change in immediacy that occurred in response to the experimental manipulation. To accomplish this, the first two topics ("What I think of leaders," and "How I respond to criticism") stood as a unit of communication for establishing a baseline of non-immediacy that would be indicative of the S's level of non-immediacy before the C spoke on any of the topics. This procedure also contributed to reducing the within-group variance due to individual differences in level of non-immediacy.

The trend of past research (Kuiken & Roth, 1973), as well as the present study was for Ss to become more non-immediate after interacting with the C. Thus, the baseline non-immediacy score has tended to be larger than non-immediacy scores on later topics. The present procedure involved subtracting each score from its respective baseline score. For example, an S with a total non-immediacy score of 4.0 (indicating that the S averaged four non-immediacy categories per typed line over the last four topics), and a baseline score of 3.00 (indicating that the S averaged three non-immediacy categories per line over topics 1 and 2), would receive a final score of 1.00. The final score would indicate an average increase from the baseline of 1.00 non-immediacy categories per line. Thus, an individual with a

final score of .62 would be considered as more immediate in his communication than would an individual with a final score of 1.00, since the latter averaged a greater increase in non-immediacy from his respective baseline. In essence, scores that indicate most immediacy would be ones which reflected least increase in non-immediacy.

A rater for the scoring of non-immediacy, a graduate of honors psychology from The University of Alberta, was trained by the author. (The author has had extensive experience with the non-immediacy scales.) The rater was trained for a previous study, (Robertson & Roth, 1973), and thus had rating experience prior to the present study. In the event that a practice effect was still operant, Ss' transcripts were presented for rating in randomized order. Also, the males and females were scored in an alternating manner (female, male, female, male, etc.) to minimize scoring effects on the sex variable. Inter-judge reliability with the investigator was .80 (n = 18), which corresponds favorably with those obtained by Wiener and Mehrabian (1968).

Also the number of lines in each of S's communications was recorded since previous research findings (Mehrabian, 1965) have indicated that length of communication can also be considered a category of non-immediacy.

Measurement of Client Affect and Evaluation of Self and Other

A questionnaire was devised to yield variables from 29 bi-polar scales (see Appendix F). The variables served to determine whether: (1) Immediate Cs would be regarded more positively than would be Non-immediate Cs; (2) Ss would feel more positively about themselves and the interaction when the C was Immediate (versus

Non-immediate); (3) System IV Cs (versus System I) would be perceived by the Ss as being more complex (more reflective, flexible, independent, and tolerant of ambiguity); (4) Ss would regard themselves as more similar to their cognitively compatible C; and (5) Ss would offer more positive ratings regarding self, the C, and the interaction when paired with a cognitively compatible (versus incompatible) C.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

I. EFFECTIVENESS OF IMMEDIACY MANIPULATION

In order to verify whether the immediacy manipulation was effective, the E asked two groups of Ss (these Ss were not part of the experiment of the present dissertation) to indicate their impressions of speakers on the tape recordings. The recordings were those prepared earlier in which the Cs discussed the four topics, with variations according to the experimental conditions. When the Ss appeared, they were seated and, as a group, given the following instructions:

> "This is an experiment on impression formation. What you are about to hear is a tape recording taken from a person who has been told to talk to another person about his (her) feelings regarding certain topics. What we are looking at is how persons tend to form different impressions of other people depending on what topics the person talks about. I would like you to imagine that the person you will be listening to is really talking to you. Later, I will be giving you a questionnaire on which you may indicate your impressions. The topics about which this particular person was speaking on are the following: "What I do when in doubt"; "How I respond to criticism"; "My thoughts about people"; and "How I react when people find fault with me."

Each S was then given the list of topics as an aid to following the topics on the tape recording. After the Ss listened to the four topics, they were given a questionnaire containing a number of bi-polar adjectives with the numbers one through seven. For one group (n = 7), the disclosures of the Cs were in the Immediate Condition, whereas for the other group (n = 8), the recorded disclosures were of the Non-immediate Condition. Four items, which were "warmth," "friendliness," "openness," and "intimacy" were selected, a priori, because they were

judged to be descriptive of immediacy. Positive evaluations, as implied by gravitation toward the positive pole, were summed into a single score for each S, and the means for each group were compared by a t-test. The results confirmed a significant tendency ($p < .05$) for Ss to rate Immediate disclosures more positively on the above dimensions. However, an analysis of variance of the same items on the post-manipulation questionnaire of the dissertation study offered no indication that Ss perceived immediate disclosures as more open, intimate, friendly, and warm.

II. EFFECTIVENESS OF COGNITIVE COMPLEXITY MANIPULATION

According to the classification system of Harvey et al. (1961), individuals of conceptual System IV, in comparison to System I, tend to be more reflective, flexible, independent, and tolerant of ambiguity. To ensure that the present complexity manipulation, styled after the ITI, was effective, four items (impulsive-reflected, flexible-inflexible, dependent-independent, and dislikes ambiguity-likes ambiguity) were included in the questionnaire to yield a factor for "perceived cognitive complexity" of the "other person." An analysis of variance supported that the Cs' disclosures designed as System IV were, in fact, perceived by Ss as more cognitively complex than were the Cs' System I disclosures ($p < .01$).

III. RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypothesis I

The prediction that Immediate disclosures of the C would encourage more immediate S disclosures was not supported. The main effects

did not indicate significantly more S immediacy when the C was Immediate versus Non-immediate (Table I).

However, the data suggested that conditions under which the reciprocity of immediacy occurs may be more complex than originally supposed. An analysis of variance revealed a significant ($p < .05$) C complexity by C Immediacy interaction (Table II). The trend suggested that in response to Cs' System IV disclosures, the Ss were more immediate when the C was Immediate versus Non-immediate, as predicted, although this simple main effect did not reach statistical significance ($p < .10$). However, when the Cs' disclosures were System I, the reverse occurred. That is, the data indicated that Ss were more immediate when the C was Non-immediate versus Immediate. This simple main effect was significant at the .05 level.

Hypothesis II

Ss showed no significant tendency to reciprocate the immediacy level of the C more readily when paired with Cs of the same cognitive system, offering no support for the hypothesis that immediacy would be most readily reciprocated with cognitively compatible pairings.

Hypothesis III

The hypothesis that more immediacy would be emitted in cognitively compatible pairings, (over both Immediate and Non-immediate conditions) was not confirmed. However, an effect for sex difference was operant in the compatibility situations. A significant higher order interaction ($p < .05$) for Sex by S complexity by C complexity indicated that System I females were more immediate with a System I than System IV

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF SUBJECT NON-IMMEDIACY IN RESPONSE TO THE EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS

SOURCE	DF	MS	F
Between Subjects	47		
A (Sex)	1	28025.02	2.29
B (S Complexity)	1	33.33	.00
A X B	1	69921.33	4.21*
C (C Complexity)	1	736.33	.04
A X C	1	14008.33	.84
B X C	1	7931.02	.48
A X B X C	1	100192.69	6.04*
D (C Immediacy)	1	14386.69	.87
A X D	1	172.52	.01
B X D	1	168.75	.01
C X D	1	71610.75	4.31*
A X B X D	1	22620.08	1.36
A X C X D	1	918.75	.06
B X C X D	1	25.52	.00
A X B X C X D	1	39273.52	2.36
Subjects within Groups	32		
E (Trials)	3	22827.53	3.78*
E X A	3	7682.15	1.27
E X B	3	366.43	0.06
E X A X B	3	10164.93	1.68
E X C	3	14542.87	2.41
E X A X C	3	5536.60	.92
E X B X C	3	18388.70	3.05*
E X A X B X C	3	5642.37	.94
E X D	3	6466.62	1.07
E X A X D	3	1728.12	.29
E X B X D	3	8142.21	1.35
E X C X D	3	12969.71	2.15
E X A X B X D	3	5349.60	.89
E X A X C X D	3	2959.21	.49
E X B X C X D	3	2992.51	.50
E X A X B X C X D	3	3290.28	.55
E x Subjects within Groups	96	6037.66	

* Significant at the .05 level

C, and System IV females were more immediate with a System IV than System I C, as predicted by the hypothesis (Table III). This simple effect was significant ($p < .05$).

TABLE II

EFFECTS OF CONFEDERATE COMPLEXITY AND IMMEDIACY ON NON-IMMEDIACY LEVEL* OF SUBJECTS

CONFEDERATE	NON-IMMEDIATE	IMMEDIATE
System I	.54**	1.10**
System IV	.89	.67

* Table scores indicate increase from baseline in average number of non-immediacy categories per typed line of Ss' communications (n = 12 per cell).

Note: The interaction was significant at the .05 level.

** The increase from .54 to 1.10 was significant at the .05 level.

TABLE III

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COGNITIVE COMPATIBILITY AND NON-IMMEDIACY OF SUBJECTS

	COMPATIBLE	INCOMPATIBLE
Females	.68*	1.90*
Males	2.21	1.56

Note: The interaction was significant at the .05 level.

* The increase from .68 to 1.90 was significant at the .05 level.

For both System I and System IV males, if anything, the reverse occurred, indicating that the males tended to be more immediate in cognitively incompatible pairings. However, this simple effect was not significant. Also, while the effect for trials was not significant, the pattern for the above interaction was reflected primarily in the first three topics.

Hypothesis IV

It was hypothesized that positive affect would be greater in response to Immediate disclosures. From the nine items included on the questionnaire which served as measures of S's positive evaluations of the "other" (warm - cold, friendly - unfriendly, anxious - calm, open - closed, distant - intimate, like - dislike "other," comfortable - uncomfortable with "other," like - dislike "other" as friend), no main effects were significant, which suggested that Immediate Cs were not evaluated more positively than Non-immediate Cs. A significant higher order interaction did occur regarding the item "How would you feel about having the other person as your friend?" ($p < .05$). The trend of the Sex by C complexity by Immediacy interaction suggested that males preferred Immediate to Non-immediate System IV C as friend. However, the reverse seemed to occur for females, who indicated some preference for Non-immediate over Immediate System IV C. Also, for females, the trend was toward a preference for Immediate to Non-immediate System I C, while males tended to prefer Non-immediate to Immediate System I C. The different directions of the trends rather than the simple effects accounted for the significant interaction (Table IV).

A further marginally significant trend ($p < .06$), contrary to

Hypothesis IV, was that Immediate System I Cs were perceived by System IV Ss as less friendly than Non-immediate System IV Cs (Table V).

TABLE IV

SUBJECT RATINGS OF LIKING* "OTHER" AS FRIEND

	FEMALES	MALES
C I, Immediate	5.83	5.17
C I, Non-Immediate	4.83	5.33
C IV, Immediate	5.50	5.67
C IV, Non-Immediate	6.33	4.83

* Scores indicate means (n = 6 per cell) of a bi-polar, 1 through 7 rating scale. Higher numbers indicate greater liking of C as friend.

Note: The interaction was significant at the .05 level.

TABLE V

SUBJECT RATINGS OF CONFEDERATE FRIENDLINESS

	IMMEDIATE	NON-IMMEDIATE
S I, C I	5.7	5.3
S I, C IV	5.8	6.0
S IV, C I	5.2	5.2
S IV, C IV	5.9	5.5

Note: The interaction was marginally significant ($p < .06$).

Hypothesis V

The prediction that Ss would indicate more positive affect with cognitive compatible versus incompatible Cs received only meagre support (Table V). An interaction occurred on S's ratings of the friendliness of Cs, although this effect was only marginally significant ($p < .06$). While, in support of the hypothesis, System IV Ss perceived System IV Cs as more friendly than System I Cs, System I Ss, if anything, also perceived System IV Cs as more friendly. The latter was contrary to Hypothesis V.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The assumption of the present study was that improvement for some clients, as implied by movement through the stages of Rogers' Process Scale, involves a change in the manner of experiencing and self-expression. This change was described earlier as a movement toward more positive affect regarding one's experiences, and would be characterized by greater immediacy in one's communication. Thus, a goal of therapy may be to encourage a client toward more immediacy in his self-expression.

The original hypothesis was that Cs' immediacy would lead to covert communication of positive affect toward the Ss. It was also expected that such positive affect would mediate greater Ss' immediacy. The hypothesis was supported by the results for the System IV Cs' communications, since the reciprocity effect (a trend) occurred, and the Immediate System IV Cs were perceived as liking Ss more than were System IV Cs in the Non-immediate Condition. However, the reciprocity of immediacy did not occur in response to the System I Cs (the reverse occurred) despite the fact that Ss also inferred greater liking from the Immediate than Non-immediate System I Cs. While immediacy of Cs was regarded by Ss as liking for them, a feeling of being liked did not always lead to greater Ss' immediacy. (The data yielded no other main effects for the questionnaire positive affect items. Thus, support was lacking for concluding that immediacy on the part of one person encourages positive affect on the part of another.)

A closer examination of the Cs' communications suggested that the reciprocity of immediacy could be related to factors other than liking or positive affect. Possibly the Cs' direct and explicit indications of tolerance and acceptance may have led to the reciprocity of immediacy, whereas direct and explicit intolerance and conditional acceptance of Ss (but not dislike) led to increased non-immediacy.

The possibility of tolerance and acceptance of another interacting with Immediacy of Cs received support from the data. The main effects for C type indicated that System IV (versus System I) Cs were considered as more open ($p < .01$) and complex (more flexible, tolerant of ambiguity, reflective, and independent, $p < .01$). However, Ss reciprocated immediacy only when Cs' openness and complexity occurred in conjunction with the Cs' immediacy. When Cs who were regarded as less open and less complex (the System I Cs) were Immediate, Ss were more non-immediate.

Further evidence that Immediate Cs' openness and complexity may have encouraged Ss' reciprocation of immediacy was inferred from the Ss' immediacy level on different topics in different conditions. While the System IV C discussed topics 1, 2, and 3 in a manner in which tolerance and acceptance of others was conveyed, only in the Immediate Condition was the tolerance and acceptance related directly to the Ss. The System IV Cs' discussions of topic 4, however, contained no reference to acceptance of the other individual. The data reflected greater Ss' immediacy when the System IV C was Immediate on topics 1, 2, and 3 (particularly in response to topic 2, where the Cs' acceptance appeared to be most elaborated). No reciprocity of immediacy occurred (in fact,

a trend for increased non-immediacy occurred) for topic 4.

Alternatively, System I Cs' discussions of the topics included suggestions of lack of tolerance as well as conditional acceptance of others. However, such attitudes tended to encourage significantly more non-immediacy in Ss only when (in the Immediate Condition) the Cs related the attitudes directly to the Ss. For example, in topic 2, the Immediate C indicated a desire for tearing the S apart if his ideas were wrong.

A supportive finding was that System I Cs appeared less friendly ($p < .01$) than did the System IV Cs. While no scale on the questionnaire was devised to measure the Ss' feelings of being accepted by the Cs, perceptions of the Cs' friendliness may suggest that Ss did feel more unconditionally accepted by the apparently more friendly Cs. Further research on the relationship of immediacy and unconditional acceptance (or perhaps unconditional positive regard) may be required to clarify the extent to which acceptance rather than positive affect or liking may facilitate increased immediacy.

In brief, a limitation of the reciprocity hypothesis was the possibly different effect of System I versus System IV Cs' attitudes on Ss' non-immediacy. While immediacy regarding one's feelings, thoughts, opinions, and attitudes was expected to encourage another to reciprocate immediacy regarding his experiences, such an effect may depend upon the particular experience about which one is immediate. For example, the immediate statement, "I dislike you; I particularly dislike your dress and your hair style" may generate more non-immediacy than the less immediate statement, "I guess we older people have a rather difficult time appreciating everything about young people (you), like their way of

dressing and hair styles."

A possible limitation of the present study was the unqualified assumption that the therapists' immediate disclosures would provide a role model of a person who is living effectively. While Robertson and Roth (1973) found that increased immediacy regarding topics about one's self was directly proportionate to adjustment, a further finding was that high scorers on personal and social adjustment on the CTP were more non-immediate than low scorers when talking on negative topics about others (but not on positive topics). Thus, in the present study, Immediate disclosures regarding intolerance and conditional acceptance of others may have been less typical of an adjusted person as well as less socially acceptable than more non-immediate statements regarding such attitudes.

Extensive research on compatibility has generally supported the hypothesis that similarity of attitudes as well as cognitive (dimensional) complexity would lead to positive affect toward the other. In the present study, the System I and IV Cs' communications were derived from System I and IV statements from the ITI. Thus, the selection of System I and IV Ss on the basis of ITI scores would indicate that the Cs' disclosures in compatible pairings reflected attitudes with which the Ss had earlier identified. However, Ss did not perceive themselves as more similar to their "compatible" Cs. Furthermore, Ss did not tend to indicate more positive affect (as reflected by the questionnaire) toward cognitively similar Cs. Despite the lack of perceived similarity and positive affect for compatible Cs, females did show a significant tendency towards greater immediacy in cognitively compatible pairings, while

males, if anything, were more immediate with incompatible Cs. (Again, the greater immediacy did not appear to be mediated by positive affect.) Perhaps while Ss did not see themselves as more similar to their compatible partner, the Cs' verbalizations of similar attitudes to those of the compatible Ss may have led to feelings of being understood. For females, feelings of being understood may also enhance feelings of being accepted. Such feelings may have encouraged greater immediacy. With males, possibly feelings of being understood have little relationship to feelings of being accepted. However, the present questionnaire did not contain items which could verify such speculation.

Also, in regard to the item "How would you feel about having the other person as your friend?", females indicated preference for Immediate (versus Non-immediate) System I Cs, and Non-immediate (versus Immediate) System IV Cs, while males preferred Non-immediate (versus Immediate) System I Cs, and Immediate (versus Non-immediate) System IV Cs. In this instance, understanding the other may have had an effect on the preferences, since the data indicated a slight, though insignificant trend ($p < .10$), for System IV Cs to be best understood when Non-immediate, while System I Cs were best understood when Immediate. Again, the suggestion would be that females may value understanding in a relationship more than do males.

Other findings in regard to sex differences were that females tended to speak longer in the Immediate Condition, whereas males, if anything, spoke longer in the Non-immediate Condition ($p < .05$). Wiener and Mehrabian (1965) have suggested that length of communication is a non-immediacy category. According to this category, females would tend

to reciprocate immediacy more readily than would males. Also, females felt better about their ability to relate after interacting with Cs in the Immediate Conditions, whereas males felt better after interacting with Cs in the Non-immediate Conditions ($p < .05$). Furthermore, females indicated more liking for their Cs than did males ($p < .05$). Collectively, the above findings are consistent with Jourard's (1964) designation that females, particularly in the North American culture, tend to prefer more intimacy and affect in their relationships. Males, on the other hand, may tend to prefer comparatively more distance, less affect (both in terms of their own feelings of liking the other as well as preference for less immediacy on the part of the partner), and less understanding, at least in initial contacts.

Non-immediacy has been associated with the communicator's negative affect toward the addressee as well as toward the communication content. The present study found little relationship between the communicator's (Ss') non-immediacy and negative affect toward the addressee (Cs). However, a significant ($p < .05$) main effect for trials (topics) suggested support for a positive relationship between the communicator's (Ss') non-immediacy and negative affect regarding the communication content (topics). The topics were: (1) What I do when in doubt; (2) How I respond when a friend acts differently toward me; (3) My thoughts about people; and (4) How I react when people find fault with me. The data appeared to indicate that Ss would be most non-immediate when talking about "How I respond when people find fault with me," (possibly the most negative topic) and most immediate when talking about "My thoughts about people" (possibly the least negative topic). However, the notion

that topics varied on conduciveness to negative affect remains speculative. Also, since the order of presentation of topics was not randomized, the effect for topics was confounded with effects for order.

In summary, the findings of the present study suggested that while the immediacy of one individual may encourage immediacy on the part of another, immediacy may also induce non-immediacy. The data indicated that immediacy accompanied by acceptance and tolerance toward others (perhaps unconditional positive regard) may encourage immediacy. However, immediacy accompanied by conditional acceptance and less tolerance may lead to non-immediacy. An implication of the study would be that therapists who are highly accepting of clients may, through immediacy, assist clients toward positive affect regarding their experiences. However, less accepting, or perhaps judgmental therapists, may be less successful in encouraging clients towards feeling positively about themselves.

Thus, the present study tended to lend support to Carkhuff's (1969) conceptualization of the communication of respect. He states:

> an initial kind of unconditionality, defined by an active encouragement of expression and an absence of negative regard, is perhaps the most effective vehicle for the communication of respect. The helpee knows at least that the helper will hear him out before he makes critical judgement (p. 205).

Previous research has suggested that positive affect, such as client's feeling of being liked (Stoler, 1963), relates directly to client improvement. However, while positive affect variables may tend to positively relate to outcome, perhaps positive affect for the client relates to improvement only when the client has feelings of being unconditionally accepted by the therapist. Further research on the

interaction of unconditional acceptance and other variables, which, in isolation, have been directly related to positive outcome, may be necessary to clarify the limitations of such variables.

A further implication is that while talking immediately about one's self would imply that one is not discriminating between "good" and "bad," or perhaps "justified" and "unjustified" feelings, non-immediate disclosures regarding one's negative evaluations of others may have, under certain circumstances, a positive function. Perhaps the use of non-immediacy regarding one's negative affect for others is implied in Carkhuff's notion of being minimally genuine. That is, while the therapist is not dishonest, he may, according to facilitate Level IV, be somewhat hesitant about expressing his feelings fully (Carkhuff, 1969). Such hesitation, or minimizing of genuineness, may be particularly applicable to statements directed toward the client rather than statements regarding the therapist's feelings about himself. Thus, in some instances, non-immediacy may function as tact, or as an expression of tolerance for others.

Further research is needed to verify that immediate statements which convey unconditional acceptance encourage immediacy more readily than do immediate statements that convey positive affect or evaluation for the other. Also, encouraging more immediacy on the part of the client may be desirable if the increased immediacy is toward thoughts and feelings about himself, while movement toward non-immediacy regarding negative affect toward others may be related to improvement. Verification of the above implications through investigations in clinical settings would be advisable before making recommendations for psychotherapy.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

NON-IMMEDIACY CATEGORIES

The following non-immediacy categories include all the categories which have been investigated in various studies of verbal non-immediacy (adapted from Wiener and Mehrabian, 1968). Non-immediacy is scored each time a category is used when, in fact, a more immediate alternative could have been used to convey the same message.

Spacial

The communicator refers to the object of his communication using words that imply distance from him (e.g., "Those children sitting there" versus "These children sitting here"; and "That is news to me" versus "This is news to me").

Temporal

The communicator relates a present experience using the future or past tense, or uses temporal modifiers in the communication (e.g., "I was thinking of going home" versus "I am thinking of going home"; "I am going to ask you to write your name" versus "Write your name"; and "I did not understand before you explained" versus "I understand you").

Part

In the verbalization only a part or aspect of self or the object of the communication is involved, or a statement which could be positive is expressed as a negation (e.g., "My conscience says it will not matter" versus "I say it will not matter"; "I said it to his face" versus "I said it to him"; and "He is not bold" versus "He is shy").

Class

The symbol used to designate self or the object of the communication includes a class of persons or a class of objects (e.g., "You seldom know what men will do" versus "I seldom know what Bill will do"; and "The teacher does not like toys" versus "Mr. Smith does not like my water pistol").

Implicit

The communication contains indirect or implicit reference to the communicator or the object of the communication (e.g., "The instructor was alarmed" versus "The instructor was alarmed with me"; and "I expected promptness" versus "I expected you to be prompt").

Unilaterality

The mutual relationship between the subject and object in the communication is modified by minimizing the relationship, or by representing the subject as acting upon the object (e.g., "Martha and I were having a drink" versus "We were having a drink"; and "Joan is dancing with my husband" versus "Joan and my husband are dancing").

Passivity

The communicator or the object of the communication is being acted upon or driven, or the passive voice of the verb is used to deemphasize the involvement of the subject (e.g., "I cannot go" versus "I will not go" or "I will stay"; "I must see him" versus "I want to see him"; and "Your car was hit by me" versus "I hit your car").

Modified

The communication is modified by qualification, or is cloaked in

objective terms that do not add to the meaning of the communication (e.g., "I really sort of wonder about him" versus "I wonder about him"; and "Actually, he would appear small" versus "He is small").

Intensity-extensity

The communication contains modification in intensity, extensity, or frequency that does not contribute to, or perhaps distorts, the meaning of the message (e.g., "You are always late" versus "You are late"; and "He often acts indifferent" versus "He acts indifferent").

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

INTERPERSONAL TOPICAL INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS:

You will be given some situations and topics to which we would like you to respond. The responses are given in pairs. You are to choose one response from each pair. Choose the response that most closely fits your opinion or feeling and indicate your choice by circling the letter "A" or "B" corresponding to the response chosen. Always choose one member of each pair. Never choose both members of the pair and do not skip over any of the pairs. If you agree with both, choose the one you agree with most strongly. If you do not agree with either, choose the one you find the least disagreeable of the two.

EXAMPLE:

Here is an example of the way the questions will be asked and the way they should be answered. The manner in which you will indicate your choice between the two given responses is illustrated below:

When I am confused . . .

Pair No.		
(i)		
(A)		B
I try to find a solution and end the confusion.		I completely ignore the fact I am confused.
(ii)		
A		(B)
I break out into a nervous sweat.		I remain calm at all times

HOW TO RESPOND:

First: Decide which response you agree with most.

Second: Indicate which response you agree with most by circling the identifying letter. Thus, if in comparing the first pair of statements,

you agree with the statement, "I try to find a solution and end the confusion," more than with the statement, "I completely ignore the fact that I am confused," you would circle the letter "A" (above the chosen statement). Having chosen one (never both, never neither) statement from the first pair of statements, you would then move on to the second pair. If, in considering the second pair, you find that you agree more with the statement, "I remain calm at all times," (as compared to the statement, "I break out into a nervous sweat"), you would circle the letter "B".

On the pages that follow there are 36 different pairs of responses. There are two pages for each item. You are to select one response from each pair, the one that more accurately shows your opinion of feeling and record your choice by circling the letter indicating the statement chosen. Be frank and indicate, in each case, your true feeling or opinion or the reaction which you actually would make in the situation. Do not indicate how you should feel or act; rather, indicate how you do feel and act.

Make sure that you are aware of the situation or topic that each pair of response refers to. You will find the situation or topic identified at the top of each page. All items on the page refer to the situation or topic appearing at the top of that page.

When you are finished, your paper should contain 36 circles. Check back and make sure that you have made 36 circles, no more no less.

Remember:

(1) Respond only once for each pair; that is, choose one member of the pair, never both, never neither. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

(2) When you are finished you should have made 36 circles.

Work at your own rate of speed but work straight through the inventory without stopping. Once you have completed a page do not return to it.

YOU MAY BEGIN

1. Imagine that someone has criticized you. Choose the response from each pair that comes closest to your feelings about such criticism. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

When I am criticized . . .

	Pair No.	
A	(1)	B
I try to take the criticism, think about it, and value it for what it is worth. Unjustified criticism is as helpful as justified criticism in discovering what other people's standards are.		I try to accept the criticism but often find that it is not justified. People are too quick to criticize something because it doesn't fit their standards.
A	(2)	B
I try to determine whether I was right or wrong. I examine my behavior to see if it was abnormal. Criticism usually indicates that I have acted badly and tends to make me aware of my own bad points.		It could possibly be that there is some misunderstanding about something I did or said. After we both explain our viewpoints, we can probably reach some sort of compromise.
A	(3)	B
I listen to what the person says and try to accept it. At any rate, I will compare it to my own way of thinking and try to understand what it means.		I feel that either I'm not right, or the person who is criticizing me is not right. I have a talk with the person to see what's right or wrong.
A	(4)	B
I usually do not take it with good humor. Although, at times, constructive criticism is very good, I don't always think that the criticizer knows what he is talking about.		At first I feel that it is unfair and that I know what I am doing, but later I realize that the person criticizing me was right and I am thankful for his advice. I realize that he is just trying to better my actions.

A	(5)	B
I try to ask myself what advantages this viewpoint has over mine. Sometimes both views have their advantages and it is better to combine them. Criticism usually helps me to learn better ways of dealing with others.		I am very thankful. Often I can't see my own errors because I am too engrossed in my own work at the time. An outsider can judge and help me to correct the errors. Criticism in everyday life usually hurts my feelings, but I know it is for my own good.
A	(6)	B
It often has little or no effect on me. I don't mind constructive criticism too much, but I dislike destructive criticism. Destructive criticism should be ignored.		I try to accept and consider the criticism. Sometimes it has caused me to change myself; at other times I have felt that the criticism didn't really make much sense.

2. Imagine that you are in doubt. Choose the response from each pair that comes closest to your feelings about each doubt. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

When I am in doubt . . .

Pair No.

A		B
I become uncomfortable. Doubt can cause confusion and make one do a poor job. When one is in doubt he should ask and be sure of himself.	(7)	I find myself wanting to remove the doubt, but this often takes time. I may ask for help or advice if I feel that my questions won't bother the other person.
I don't get too upset about it. I don't like to ask someone else unless I have to. It's better to discover the correct answer on your own.	(8)	I usually go to someone who knows the correct answer to my question. Sometimes I go to a book which will set me straight by removing the doubt.
I first try to reason things out and check over the facts. Often I approach others to get ideas that will provide a solution.	(9)	I think things over, ask questions, and see what I can come up with. Often several answers are reasonable and it may be difficult to settle on one.
I realize that I'll have to decide on the correct answer on my own. Others try to be helpful, but often do not give me the right advice. I like to judge for myself.	(10)	I usually try to find out what others think, especially my friends. They may not know the answer, but they often give me some good ideas.

A	(11)	B
I look over the problem and try to see why there is a doubt. I try to figure things out. Sometimes I just have to wait awhile for an answer to come to me.		I try to get some definite information as soon as possible. Doubt can be bad if it lasts too long. It's better to be sure of yourself.

A	(12)	B
I consider what is best in the given situation. Although one should not rush himself when in doubt, he should certainly try to discover the right answer.		I act according to the situation. Sometimes doubt can be more serious than at other times and many of our serious doubts must go unanswered.

3. Imagine that a friend has acted differently toward you. Choose the response from each pair that comes closest to your feelings about such an action. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

When a friend acts differently toward me . . .

Pair No.		
A	(13)	B
I am not terribly surprised because people can act in many different ways. We are different people and I can't expect to understand all his reasons for acting in different ways.		I am usually somewhat surprised but it doesn't bother me very much. I usually act the way I feel towards others. People worry too much about others' actions and reactions.
A	(14)	B
I find out why. If I have done something wrong I will try to straighten out the situation. If I think he's wrong, I expect him to clear things up.		I feel that I may have caused him to act in a different way. Of course, he may have other reasons for acting differently which would come out in time.
A	(15)	B
I first wonder what the trouble is. I try to look at it from his viewpoint and see if I might be doing something to make him act differently toward me.		It is probably because he has had a bad day, which would explain this different behavior; in other cases he may just be a changeable kind of person
A	(16)	B
It is probably just because something is bothering him. I might try to cheer him up or to help him out. If these things didn't work I would just wait for him to get over it.		I try to understand what his different actions mean. I can learn more about my friend if I try to figure out why he does things. Sometimes the reasons may not be very clear.

A	(17)	B
There has to be a definite reason. I try to find out this reason, and then act accordingly. If I'm right I'll let him know. If he's wrong, he should apologize.		I usually let him go his way and I go mine. If a friend wants to act differently that's his business, but it's my business if I don't want to be around when he's that way.

A	(18)	B
I don't get excited. People change and this may cause differences. It is important to have friends, but you can't expect them to always be the same.		I like to get things back to normal as soon as possible. It isn't right for friends to have differences between them. Whoever is at fault should straighten himself out.

4. Think about the topic of people in general. Choose the response from each pair that comes closest to your thoughts about people. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

This I believe about people . . .

	Pair No.	
A	(19)	B
Whatever differences may exist between persons, they can usually get along if they really want to. Although their ideas may not agree, they probably still have something in common.		People can learn from those who have different ideas. Other people usually have some information or have had some experience which is interesting and can add to one's knowledge.
A	(20)	B
People can act in all sorts of ways. No single way is always best, although at certain times a particular action might be wiser than others.		Each person should be able to decide the correct thing for himself. There are always a few choices to be made and the individual himself is in the best position to pick the right one.
A	(21)	B
Some people think they know what's best for others and try to give advice. These people should not make suggestions unless asked for help.		There are certain definitive ways in which people should act. Some don't know what the standards are and therefore need to be straightened out.
A	(22)	B
I can tell if I am going to get along with a person very soon after meeting him. Most people act either one way or another and usually it is not difficult to say what they are like.		It's hard for me to say what a person is like until I've known him a long time. People are not easy to understand and often act in unpredictable ways.

A	(23)	B
People have an outside appearance that usually isn't anything like what can be found on the inside, if you search long and hard enough.		Each person is an individual. Although some people have more good or bad points than others, no one has the right to change them.

A	(24)	B
People can be put into categories on the basis of what they're really like. Knowing the way a person really is helps you to get along with him better.		People are unlike one another in many respects. You can get along with people better and better understand them if you are aware of the differences.

5. Think about the general topic of leaders. Choose the response from each pair that comes closest to your thoughts about leaders. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

Leaders . . .

	Pair No.	
A	(25)	B
Leaders do not always make the right decisions. In such cases, it is wise for a man to look out for his own welfare.		Leaders are necessary in all cases. If a leader cannot make the right decisions another should be found who can.
A	(26)	B
Leaders cannot provide all the answers. They are like other people -- they have to try to figure out what action is necessary and learn from their mistakes.		Leaders make decisions sometimes without being sure of themselves. We should try to understand this and think of ways to help them out.
A	(27)	B
I like a leader who is aware of how the group feels about things. Such a leader would not lead any two groups in exactly the same way.		A person should be able to put his confidence in a leader and feel that the leader can make the right decision in a difficult situation.
A	(28)	B
There are times when a leader should not make decisions for those under him. The leader has the power to decide things, but each man has certain rights also.		A leader should give those under him some opportunity to make decisions, when possible. At times, the leader is not the best judge of a situation and should be willing to accept what others have to say.
A	(29)	B
Some leaders are good, others are quite poor. Good leaders are those who know what is right for the man under them. These leaders deserve the respect of every man.		Leaders cannot be judged easily. Many things go to make up good leadership. Most people fall short in some way or another, but that is to be expected.

A	(30)	B
Leaders are needed more at certain times than at others. Even though people can work out many of their own problems, a leader can sometimes give valuable advice.		Some people need leaders to make their decisions. I prefer to be an individual and decide for myself, when possible. Most leaders won't let you do this.

6. Imagine that someone has found fault with you. Choose the response from each pair that comes closest to your feelings about such a situation. Indicate your choice by circling either "A" or "B".

When other people find fault with me . . .

Pair No.		
A	(31)	B
It means that someone dislikes something I'm doing. People who find fault with others are not always correct. Each person has his own ideas about what's right.		It means that someone has noticed something and feels he must speak out. It may be that we don't agree about a certain thing. Although we both have our own ideas, we can talk about it.
A	(32)	B
I first wonder if they are serious and why they have found fault with me. I then try to consider what they've said and make changes if it will help.		If enough people point out the same fault, there must be something to it. I try to rid myself of the fault, especially if the criticizers are people "in the know."
A	(33)	B
They have noticed something about me of which I am not aware. Although criticism may be hard to take, it is often helpful.		They are telling me something they feel is correct. Often they may have a good point which can help me in my own thinking. At least it's worthwhile to consider it.
A	(34)	B
I may accept what is said or I may not. It depends upon who is pointing out the fault. Sometimes it's best to stay out of sight.		I accept what is said if it is worthwhile, but sometimes I don't feel like changing anything. I usually question the person.

A	(35)	B
I like to find out what it means; since people are different from one another, it could mean almost anything. A few people just like to find fault with others but there's usually something to be learned.		There is something to be changed. Either I am doing something wrong or else they don't like what I'm doing. Whoever is at fault should be informed so that the situation can be set straight.

A	(36)	B
I don't mind if their remarks are meant to be helpful, but there are too many people who find fault just to give you a hard time.		It often means that they're trying to be disagreeable. People get this way when they've had a bad day. I try to examine their remarks in terms of what's behind them.

INDIVIDUAL TOPICAL INVENTORY SCORING KEY

Pair No.	System A	System B	Pair No.	System A	System B
1.	3	2	19.	3	4
2.	1	4	20.	4	2
3.	3	1	21.	2	1
4.	2	1	22.	1	4
5.	4	3	23.	3	2
6.	2	4	24.	1	3
7.	1	3	25.	2	1
8.	2	1	26.	4	3
9.	3	4	27.	3	1
10.	2	3	28.	2	4
11.	4	1	29.	1	4
12.	2	4	30.	3	2
13.	4	2	31.	2	4
14.	1	3	32.	3	1
15.	3	2	33.	3	4
16.	3	4	34.	1	2
17.	1	2	35.	4	1
18.	4	1	36.	2	3

SYSTEM SCORING

If a S scores 9th or 10th decile in one system and 8th or lower in all others, classify him in his highest system. Ss who score 8th decile in one system and 6th or lower in all others may also be classified in their highest scoring system.

	System			
Decile	1	2	3	4
10	11	13	13	15
9	10	12	12	14
8	9	11	12	14
7	8	10	11	12
6	8	9	10	12

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

CONFEDERATE COMMUNICATIONS

Each communication includes:

(1) the verbatum System I alternatives from the Individual Topical Inventory (ITI) for the System I confederate disclosures, and the verbatum System IV alternatives for the System IV disclosures (the underlined passages):

(2) three sentences, per topic, which paraphrase the ITI alternatives (P);

(3) two examples, per topic, which illustrate the ITI alternatives (E.g.);

(4) three speech disfluences (ah, hmm) per topic, which have conjunctive functions (C);

(5) pauses between each paragraph;

(6) the appropriate self-reference, which, for the female condition, involved changing masculine references to self and other (e.g., "he," "his") to a neutral form (e.g., "they," "their");

(7) an introduction of the topic involving repetition of the topic title, and "that's all" to indicate that no more was going to be said on the topic.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, IMMEDIATE

Topic (1) What I do when in Doubt.

I become uncomfortable. P It doesn't feel very good to be in doubt. Doubt can cause confusion and make one do a poor job. E.g., Like, say even now, I'm not really sure what we are supposed to be talking about, so I'm probably not doing a very good job of telling you the things about myself that are important, or that you're interested in. The more I doubt, probably the worse it is. C Ah, when one is in doubt, he should ask and be sure of himself.

I usually go to someone who knows the correct answer to my question. Mmm, sometimes I go to a book which will set me straight by removing the doubt. P Some books might have the answer to the question that I'm wondering about.

C Ah, I try to get some definite information as soon as possible. P The sooner I find the answer, the sooner I can feel good about things. Doubt can be bad if it lasts too long. E.g., Like, I'm glad they picked you to start off talking about these topics rather than me. He said we could say what we wanted and talk as long as we wanted, but, I still had some doubts as to what I would want to tell you. After you talked on the first two topics, some of my doubts disappeared, because I was interested in what you were saying and I felt like getting involved. Before you talked, I was doubting that I would feel like talking to you at all, because I didn't know what you were like, or if I'd feel like telling you personal things. Now that I've been listening to you, I feel that you've broken the ice, and I feel quite good about talking to you. I feel more sure of myself now. It's better to be sure of yourself.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, NON-IMMEDIACY

Topic (1) What I do when in Doubt.

I become uncomfortable. P It doesn't feel very good to be in doubt. Doubt can cause confusion and make one do a poor job. E.g., Like, say, maybe sometimes when you're really not too sure what you're trying to say, then you can't do a very good job of telling the person the things about things that are sort of important, or maybe that the other person's interested in. Doubting always makes you feel worse and worse. C Ah, when one is in doubt, he should ask and be sure of himself.

I usually go to someone who knows the correct answer to my question. Mmm, sometimes I go to a book which will set me straight by removing the doubt. P Some books might have the answer to the question that I'm wondering about.

C Ah, I try to get some definite information as soon as possible. P The sooner I find the answer, the sooner I can feel good about things. Doubt can be bad if it lasts too long. E.g., Like, sometimes when a situation makes a person doubt, it kind of relieves you when someone else starts talking on some topic. Even though you know you can say whatever you want to, or talk as long as you want to, I think a person usually at first can't help having some doubtful thoughts about what they should say. After another person starts talking for a while, it sort of makes your doubts disappear because if he can make things interesting, it can get you involved. Before a person has talked you might have your doubts that you could really talk to him, because you have no feeling for what they're like, or if you could tell them personal

things. But after you've listened to a person for a while, say, after they've sort of broken the ice a little, it might put you in a position so that you can talk to him a little better. It can make you feel more sure of yourself. It's better to be sure of yourself.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, IMMEDIATE

Topic (2) How I respond when a Friend acts Differently toward me.

I find out why. C Ah, P It doesn't help if you don't know why. If I have done something wrong, I will try to straighten out the situation. E.g., Like, I might be saying some things in discussing these topics, and I might be saying something wrong, or cutting down what you know is right. If you let me know I'm wrong, I'll try and straighten things out. I guess that leaves me a little off-guard, like I'm letting you tear me apart if you want to. But I guess I hope for the same privilege. Another person may have something that he's wrong about. If I think he's wrong, I expect him to clear things up.

There has to be a definite reason. C Hm, E.g., Like, you've talked about a lot of stuff, like your doubts, criticism, and told me sort of how you are, personal stuff. Like, I mentioned that I felt good about talking to you, so I imagine I'll keep talking to you as long as I feel good about it. If, all of a sudden you decide not to tell me any more about yourself, you'd likely have a reason for it, like you feel you're wasting your breath or something. P There's always a reason if someone acts different. I try to find out this reason and then act accordingly. If I'm right, I'll let him know it. If he's wrong, he should apologize.

I like to get things back to normal as soon as possible. P No use letting things drag on and on. It isn't right for friends to have differences between them. Whoever is at fault should straighten himself out.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, NON-IMMEDIATE

Topic (2) How I Respond when a Friend acts Differently toward me.

I find out why. C Ah, P it doesn't help if you don't know why. If I have done something wrong, I will try to straighten out the situation. E.g., Like, sometimes a person says something to someone when they're just talking about a topic and maybe they might have been saying something wrong, or sort of cutting down the other person's ideas even when his ideas are right. If a person makes you realize his ideas have been wrong, you should really straighten things out. It might make you feel sort of off guard, like you're kind of letting another person tear you apart if they want to. But you have to be given the same sort of privilege. The other person always has something that they're wrong about. If I think he's wrong, I expect him to clear things up.

There has to be a definite reason, C Hm, E.g., Like, maybe a person's talked to someone about a lot of stuff, like maybe doubts, criticisms, and maybe told someone sort of what some of their thoughts were, maybe some personal stuff. Like, when someone has given you a good feeling when you've talked to them, you sort of imagine that you'll probably keep talking to them as long as he makes you feel kind of good about it. If all of a sudden the person has decided not to tell someone anymore about his ideas, he has to have a reason for it, like he probably feels he's kind of wasting his breath or something. P There's always a reason if someone acts different. I try to find out this reason and then act accordingly. If I'm right, I'll let him know it. If he's wrong, he should apologize.

I like to get things back to normal as soon as possible. P No use letting things drag on and on. It isn't right for friends to have differences between them. Whoever is at fault should straighten himself out.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, IMMEDIATE

Topic (3) My Thoughts about People.

There are certain definite ways in which people should act. P If people don't act in certain proper ways, they're out of line. Some don't know what the standards are, and therefore need to be straightened out.

I can tell if I'm going to get along with a person very soon after meeting him. P It doesn't take long. E.g., Like, when you started talking about leaders, I thought you were on the right track. When you were talking about some of that other stuff like criticism and doubts, I was thinking "this guy's got the proper perspective on things." It didn't take me long to know I could get along with you without much trouble. Most people act either one way or another and usually it is not difficult to say what they are like.

People can be put into categories on the basis of what they're really like. P There are certain, definite kinds of people. Knowing the way a person really is helps you to get along with him better. E.g., Like, listening to you. I know what you are, a university student, quite perceptive, sensitive, and curious about things. That helps me, cause I know that that's the kind of person I'll get along with alright.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, NON-IMMEDIATE

Topic (3) My Thoughts about People.

There are certain definite ways in which people should act. P If people don't act in certain proper ways, they're out of line. Some don't know what the standards are, and therefore need to be straightened out.

I can tell if I'm going to get along with a person very soon after meeting him. P It doesn't take long. E.g., Like, when a person starts to talk to you about certain things they might make you feel that their ideas are pretty well on the right track. When a person has been talking about something or other, you might get the thought "this guy's really got the proper perspective on things." It usually doesn't take a person too long before you know that you could get along with someone's way of thinking without too much trouble. Most people act either one way or another and usually it is not difficult to say what they are like.

People can be put into categories on the basis of what they're really like. P There are certain, definite kinds of people. Knowing the way a person really is helps you to get along with him better. E.g., Like, after a person listens to someone's thoughts, it tells you what they really are, say, if they're a university student, maybe perceptive, sensitive, and sort of curious about a lot of things, that could help your thinking, cause it lets you know if that's the kind of person you could get along with alright.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, IMMEDIATE

Topic (4) How I React when People find Fault with me.

If enough people point out the same fault, there must be something to it. P If it keeps coming up, you can't ignore it. I try to rid myself of the fault, especially if the criticizers are people "in-the-know." E.g., Like, people who go to university have something on the ball, or they wouldn't be here, so I'd listen to you if you tell me I'm wrong, or how to smarten up about something where you see I'm off.

I may accept what is said or I may not. P I don't accept everything I hear. It depends upon who is pointing out the fault. E.g., I consider that someone who makes something out of himself and getsan education, say like you, has got something to say. It would probably do me good to sit back and find out where I'm going wrong, because I respect your opinion, the way you look at things. Sometimes best to just stay out of sight.

(When people find fault with me), there is something to be changed. Either I am doing something wrong or else they don't like what I'm doing. Whoever is at fault should be informed so that the situation can be straight. P When a person knows what's wrong, he's then able to do something about it.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM I, NON-IMMEDIATE

Topic (4) How I React when People find Fault with me.

If enough people point out the same fault, there must be something to it. P If it keeps coming up, you can't ignore it. I try to rid myself of the fault, especially if the criticizers are people "in-the-know." E.g., Like, people who go to university have to have something on the ball, or they wouldn't be there, so I'd have to listen to a student if he told me where I was sort of wrong, or that I had to maybe smarten up about something where he could see I was a little off.

I may accept what is said or I may not. P I don't accept everything I hear. It depends upon who is pointing out the fault. E.g., If a person is able to make something out of himself and gets an education, he has at least got something to say. It would probably do a person some good to just make himself sit back and have the other person tell him where he's going wrong, especially if you can respect his opinion, the way he looks at things. Sometimes best to just stay out of sight.

(When people find fault with me), there is something to be changed. Either I am doing something wrong or else they don't like what I'm doing. Whoever is at fault should be informed so that the situation can be straight. P When a person knows what's wrong, he's then able to do something about it.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, IMMEDIATE

Topic (1) What I do when in Doubt.

I think things over, ask questions, and see what I can come up with. P Careful consideration is usually quite productive for me, and so I like to give myself time to weigh things out. E.g., Right now I'm feeling some doubts as to what the whole thing is all about, whether I'm giving the experimenter what he wants or needs for his research, but I haven't got time to sit and figure things out, so I'm just content to say what I want to say, and hope to learn something about you as a person in spite of this experiment. (When I'm in doubt), often several answers are reasonable and it may be difficult to settle on one.

I look over the problem and try to see why there is a doubt. I try to figure things out. Sometimes I just have to wait awhile for an answer to come to me. P Satisfactory answers often take a while.

I act according to the situation. P What might be applicable to one situation may not be applicable to another. Sometimes, doubt can be more serious than at other times and many of our serious doubts must go unanswered. E.g., Like, we're talking about things that are rather personal, and I'm usually quite close to persons that I talk at a deeper level with, like talking about doubts and personal things like that. I usually believe that the other person cares or is concerned with me as a person before I rattle on about myself, but I don't really expect you to get too concerned in such a short time. In this case it doesn't bother me to talk more personally than I usually do when I meet someone, so my doubts about how personal I should get don't seem to be too serious. I'm not exactly sure why that is.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, NON-IMMEDIATE

Topic (1) What I do when in Doubt.

I think things over, ask questions, and see what I can come up with. P Careful consideration is usually quite productive for me, and so I like to give myself time to weigh things out. E.g., Sometimes a person feels doubts when they're put into a situation, and they're not too sure what it's all about. Like when you don't know whether you're able to fulfill someone else's expectations, but you quite often aren't given the chance to just sit down and sort of figure things out, so you just let yourself say what you've got to say, and just hope something can be learned in spite of how awkward the situation makes you feel. (When I'm in doubt), often several answers are reasonable and it may be difficult to settle on one.

I look over the problem and try to see why there is a doubt. I try to figure things out. Sometimes I just have to wait awhile for an answer to come to me. P Satisfactory answers often take a while.

I act according to the situation. P What might be applicable to one situation may not be applicable to another. Sometimes, doubt can be more serious than at other times and many of our serious doubts must go unanswered. E.g., Like, most of the time, when you talk to someone about things that might be sort of personal, you generally have to be quite close before you can get to a deep enough level to tell someone about certain personal things. I think a person has to believe that the other person cares or at least should be somewhat concerned with you as a person before you let yourself rattle on to someone,

although you can't expect a person to be able to be too concerned in a too short time. In some cases it doesn't bother a person to talk more personally than usual, so my doubts about how personal you should get might not be too terribly serious at times. It sort of makes you wonder why that is.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, IMMEDIACY

Topic (2) How I Respond when a Friend acts Differently toward me.

I am not terribly surprised because people can act in many different ways. E.g., Like, you've generally been sticking to the topics, talking when it's your turn, not interrupting me when I'm talking. We're kind of just going along and doing what we're supposed to do. I guess we're both quite co-operative. If you suddenly decide you'd rather talk about skiing or something, or stop telling me personal things, I would be surprised, but it wouldn't jolt me too much since we're not really co-operating, we're just doing the expected thing to get credit for the experiment. P So if a person starts acting differently, I guess I wouldn't be too alarmed since he could respond in a number of ways. We are different people and I can't expect to understand all his reasons for acting in different ways.

I try to understand what his different actions mean. E.g., Like if you clam up, it might be that you're turned off by me, or don't want to talk about a certain topic, or it could mean a number of things. P If a person acts differently than usual, I'm curious as to what these actions mean. I can learn more about my friend if I try to figure out why he does things. Sometimes the reasons may not be very clear.

I don't get excited. P There's no point in getting worked up. People change and this may cause differences. It is important to have friends, but you can't expect them to always be the same.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, NON-IMMEDIACY

Topic (2) How I Respond when a Friend acts Differently toward me.

I am not terribly surprised because people can act in many different ways. E.g., Like, when most people are getting acquainted, they generally stick to their certain pet topics, and usually talk when they're expected to or supposed to talk, and give you a chance to talk. You sort of find yourself following a norm and just doing what you're expected to do in kind of a co-operative way. If a person suddenly jumps into another topic, or if he's been talking personally and suddenly talks impersonally, it can be quite surprising, although I imagine that sort of thing wouldn't jolt a person too much, since he doesn't really have to co-operate with you, its more a matter of not having to do the expected thing for ulterior motives. P So if a person starts acting differently, I guess I wouldn't be too alarmed since he could respond in a number of ways. We are different people and I can't expect to understand all his reasons for acting in different ways.

I try to understand what his different actions mean. E.g., Like, if a person suddenly sort of clams up, it might mean that he's been turned off by someone, or can't talk any more about a certain topic, or it could probably mean quite a number of things. P If a person acts differently than usual, I'm curious as to what these actions mean. I can learn more about my friend if I try to figure out why he does things. Sometimes the reasons may not be very clear.

I don't get excited. P There's no point in getting worked up. People change and this may cause differences. It is important to have friends, but you can't expect them to always be the same.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, IMMEDIACY

Topic (3) My Thoughts about People.

People can learn from those who have different ideas. P If we all had the same ideas, interaction would not be very informative. Other people usually have some information or have had some experience which is interesting and can add to one's knowledge. E.g., Like, you were talking about the way you experience different things, like leaders, doubts. Situations somewhat different from mine so it stands to reason that you are not formulating exactly the same conclusions that I am. I find your experiences add something to my own way of thinking. Sometimes when you are talking, like, say about doubts, criticism, and some of that stuff, I am thinking "yeah, that's me too," where as other times while you talk, I say to myself, "Hey, that's different, I never looked at it that way before."

People can act in all sorts of ways. There doesn't seem to be such a thing as a way that all people from all cultures have to respond. No single way is always best, although at certain times a particular action might be wiser than others.

It's hard for me to say what a person is like until I've known him a long time. E.g., Like, I have a pretty good feeling about a lot of things you've said, agree with some of your perspectives, and wonder what's behind some of the other things you've suggested. While I feel I know you to quite an extent, in fact, in some ways better than some of my superficial friends. I may have been reading between the lines or making implications that you didn't intend, so you are still somewhat of a mystery to me. In some ways we seem like intimate strangers.

P So I have still some reservation in concluding what a person is really like without knowing him for a while. People are not easy to understand and often act in unpredictable ways.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, NON-IMMEDIACY

Topic (3) My Thoughts about People.

People can learn from those who have different ideas. P If we all had the same ideas, interaction would not be very informative. Other people usually have some information or have had some experience which is interesting and can add to one's knowledge. E.g., Like, when a person talks to someone about their thoughts about different things in their lives, you have to sort of realize that different situations have been opened to them, causing them to experience things somewhat differently than, say, other people, and leading them to draw different conclusions. You find that others experiences could often make you expand your own thoughts, like, say, on perhaps some issues, when another person has been talking it makes you think, "yeah, that's sort of like me too," whereas, other times you may be made to feel, "hey, that's different, I couldn't see it that way before."

People can act in all sorts of ways. P There doesn't seem to be such a thing as a way that all people from all cultures have to respond. No single way is always best, although at certain times a particular action might be wiser than others.

It's hard for me to say what a person is like until I've known him for a long time. E.g., Like, maybe sometimes some of the things another person says to you can give you a good feeling, and you have to agree with some of his perspectives, and, maybe wonder a little because you've got the feeling that there's got to be a lot more behind some of the things that were suggested by that person. While you might have the feeling that another person has made himself known to some

extent, you can't really be too certain that you haven't allowed yourself to sort of read between the lines too much, or maybe you've made implications that weren't really intended by the other person, leaving that person to still be, in a sense, really sort of a stranger to you, maybe, like a kind of an intimate stranger. P So I have still some reservation in concluding what a person is really like without knowing him for a while. People are not easy to understand and often act in unpredictable ways.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, IMMEDIACY

Topic (4) How I React when People find Fault with me.

It means that someone has noticed something and feels he must speak out. It may be that we don't agree about a certain thing. P It may be unrealistic to expect two persons to see eye to eye on every issue. Although we both have our own ideas, we can talk about it.

They are telling me something they feel is correct. Often they may have a good point which can help me in my own thinking. E.g., Like, I mentioned earlier, you are experiencing people and circumstances differently than I am, and I am finding that after I talk about a topic, and then hear your version that is naturally different in places, I feel like you have exposed some of my faulty or inadequate conclusions. In this way you are helping me in my way of thinking. At least it's worthwhile to consider it. P Often something is gained if I consider what has been drawn to my attention.

I like to find out what it means; since people are different from one another, it could mean almost anything. E.g., Like, in some cases your differences in experiences or perspective have added to and helped me in my own way of thinking, in that you have considered factors I have overlooked, whereas some of your differences demonstrate that you are just seeing some things differently, and not necessarily more or less accurately than I do. P So our differences could mean a number of things about both you and me. A few people just like to find fault with others but there's usually something to be learned.

COGNITIVE SYSTEM IV, NON-IMMEDIACY

Topic (4) How I Respond when People find Fault with me.

It means that someone has noticed something and feels he must speak out. It may be that we don't agree about a certain thing. P It may be unrealistic to expect two persons to see eye to eye on every issue. Although we both have our own ideas, we can talk about it.

They are telling me something they feel is correct. Often they may have a good point which can help me in my own thinking. E.g., Like, as was mentioned before, people and situations cannot be experienced in exactly the same way by two unique people, so that after another person has been talking to you about an issue that you have talked about, you may be made to feel some of your own inadequacies in your thinking. This is perhaps one way in which others can help your thinking processes. At least it's worthwhile to consider it. P Often something is gained if I consider what has been drawn to my attention.

I like to find out what it means; since people are different from one another, it could mean almost anything. E.g., Like, when another person's differences and maybe some of their perspectives have made you modify your own, it may be because you couldn't get a perspective on all the necessary factors. But, then, again, sometimes another person's differences don't make you feel that his perspective is any more or less accurate, but just tend to make you more aware of the fact that you are different in this aspect of your thinking. P So our differences could mean a number of things about both you and me. A few people just like to find fault with others but there's usually something to be learned.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

INSTRUCTIONS TO SUBJECTS

This is an experiment I'm doing for a research thesis. It's a study in impression formation. What I'm interested in is what happens in impression formation when one person talks more than the other person. In other words, what happens when, say, you, (S) _____, start talking first and share your thoughts and ideas on a couple of topics before you, (C) _____, start to speak.

Also, I believe that the kind of information discussed will also affect your impressions, so you will be given a list with a number of different topics that I think should help you get involved in discussion.

Even though this setting might seem unusual or artificial, I hope you realize that the setting you will be in is necessary for experimental control, so in spite of its limitations, I hope you will get involved in the discussions as best you can. So when you discuss the topics, it's very important that you discuss each topic as honestly as you can with the other person.

This is a list of topics. Notice that one of you is to be person A and the other person is to be person B. Before you came, you (S) _____, were randomly selected to be person A, and you, (C)_____, were selected to be person B. I'll give you a few minutes to familiarize yourselves with the list.

So in this case, (S) _____, will talk about the first two topics before (C) _____ says anything. Then after (S) _____ has finished talking about the first 2 topics, (C) _____ will talk on

the 3rd topic, then (S) _____ will also talk on the 3rd topic, and so on until all the topics have been discussed.

While the other person is talking, please do not ask any questions because I think people speak more comfortably when they can say whatever they want.

Also, when you've said all you want to say on a topic, indicate to the other person that you are finished by saying, "OK," or "That's all," or something like that.

It's been found in experiments like this that such things as facial expressions, gestures, and posture are factors that affect impression formation, but that's not what I'm studying, so during the discussion I'll have you in separate rooms which are connected by microphones.

Also, your discussions will be tape-recorded, but you won't be identified on the tape, except as person A and person B.

One last thing. You are not expected to speak for any specific length of time. The important thing is to speak as honestly as you can and try to get involved as best you can.

Do you have any questions about what I have just said? Can you tell me what you are to do? Are there any topics you do not wish to discuss? Do you object to being recorded? OK, I'll show you to your separate rooms now. (E shows Ss to the rooms, and then speaks to S from C's room.)

Now I'm speaking to you from room B because that's where the recorder is. You've each got a microphone. I'm going to turn the tape recorder on now, and then I'll leave this room. Let me know when

you're finished discussing the topics by opening your doors, but stay in your rooms, because there will be more to do. OK, person A, would you begin?

(E leaves and returns, when S is finished, to room B and turns off the recorder. He then goes to room A, gives S the questionnaire, and speaks into the microphone, supposedly for C's benefit.)

Now I would like you to complete this questionnaire to indicate your impressions of the other person. As you can see, for every item there is a pair of opposite adjectives, and the numbers 1 through 7. What you are to do is to circle the number which you feel best describes the other person or yourself for that particular characteristic. For example, for the first item, a 1 means that the person seems very warm, and a 7 means he seems very cold.

Do you understand what you are to do? OK. When you have finished the questionnaire, please put it in the envelope and drop it in the box beside the table. Please open your doors to let me know when you have finished. (E leaves, and returns, when S opens the door, to debrief.)

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

TOPIC LIST

Person A will begin by talking about topic #1. When person A is finished, he will move on to talk about topic #2 as well before person B begins to talk.

Person A will now talk about the first topic.

TOPIC #1. "What I think of leaders."

- After you are finished, person A, move on to topic #2.

TOPIC #2. "How I respond to criticism."

- Indicate when you are finished, e.g., "That's all."
- Now "B" will talk on topic #3.

TOPIC #3. "What I do when in doubt."

- Indicate when you are finished.
- "A" will now talk on the same topic, that is, topic #3.
- Indicate when you are finished.
- Now "B" will talk on topic #4.

TOPIC #4. "How I respond when a friend acts differently toward me."

- Indicate when you are finished.
- "A" will now talk on the same topic, that is, topic #4.
- Indicate when you are finished.
- Now "B" will talk on topic #5.

TOPIC #5. "My thoughts about people, such as, what ways are people the same, or different."

- Indicate when you are finished.
- "A" will now talk on the same topic, that is, topic #5.

- Indicate when you are finished.

- Now "B" will talk on topic #6.

TOPIC #6. "How I react when people find fault with me."

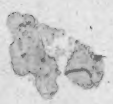
- Indicate when you are finished.

- "A" will now talk on the same topic, that is, topic #6.

- Open the door and wait for further instructions.

- Remain in your rooms.

APPENDIX F



APPENDIX F

QUESTIONNAIRE

Note: Do not put your name on this questionnaire. After you have completed it, please slip it in the envelope and drop it in the box by the table.

Please rate the other person on the following scales. Please try to express your impressions as accurately as possible.

warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	cold
friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unfriendly
anxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	calm
open	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	closed
distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	intimate
aware of himself (herself)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not aware of himself (herself)
impulsive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	reflective
flexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	inflexible
dependent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	independent
dislikes ambiguity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	likes ambiguity

How much do you think the other person likes you?

dislikes me very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	likes me very much

How comfortable was the other person with you?

very comfortable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	uncomfortable

How much do you like the other person?

dislike him very much	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	like him very much

To what extent do you think you know the other person?

very well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not at all

How comfortable were you with the other person?

very comfortable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 uncomfortable

How well do you understand the other person?

very well 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 not very well

How comfortable do you feel about your ability to relate to others?

not comfortable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 comfortable

Do you think this person is similar to you?

very similar to me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 not similar to me

How would you feel about having the other person as your friend?

not very good 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 very good

Please rate yourself on the following scales. Please try to portray yourself as accurately as possible.

warm 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 cold

friendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 unfriendly

anxious 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 calm

open 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 closed

distant 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 intimate

aware of myself 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 not aware of myself

impulsive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 reflective

flexible 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 inflexible

dependent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 independent

dislikes ambiguity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 likes ambiguity

(When completed, please drop the questionnaire in the box and open your door.)